DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 420 182 FL 025 282

TITLE	Language Coordinators Resource Kit. Section Five: Principles of Learning and Teaching.
INSTITUTION	Peace Corps, Washington, DC. Information Collection and Exchange Div.
REPORT NO	T0095
PUB DATE	1998-02-00
NOTE	106p.; The entire kit, and its ten separately analyzed sections, are FL 025 277-287.
CONTRACT	PC-896-0537
PUB TYPE	Guides - Non-Classroom (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Class Activities; Classroom Techniques; *Communicative Competence (Languages); Glossaries; *Instructional Design; *Program Administration; Program Design; Public Agencies; Second Language Instruction; Second Language Programs; *Second Languages; *Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	*Peace Corps

ABSTRACT

The guide is one section of a resource kit designed to assist Peace Corps language instruction coordinators in countries around the world in understanding the principles underlying second language learning and teaching and in organizing instructional programs. This section outlines basic principles of second language learning and teaching. An introductory chapter provides an overview of the contents and suggestions for assessing one's own knowledge about language teaching and learning. Subsequent chapters focus on: basic principles of Peace Corps training and communicative language teaching; techniques of classroom management, including use of learner-centered activities, intervening in those activities, error correction, having discussions, and concluding a class session; and classroom activities (general language learning, listening, grammar). (Contains glossaries of linguistic terms and of Peace Corps terms and acronyms and lists of commercially-available materials, publications, and videos.) (MSE)

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LANGUAGE COORDINATORS RESOURCE KIT

SECTION FIVE

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

Peace Corps
Information Collection and Exchange (ICE)
ICE Publication Number T0095
February 1998

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LANGUAGE COORDINATORS RESOURCE KIT

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Peace Corps acknowledges the special efforts of the following people in the writing, selection, compiling, editing, and design of the materials in this resource kit: Mihaela Bobeica, Joe Byrnes, Motomoke Eomba, Ana Maria Flecha, Douglas Gilzow, Daulat Karki, Zoya Lubenova, Dominik Lukes, Margaret Malone, Paz B. Meman, Simon Njure, William Perry, Larry Statan, Stephen Thewlis, and Silvia Valencia.

Prepared for Peace Corps under contract number PC-896-0537.

The Peace Corps also wishes to express its appreciation to the authors for permission to reprint the following: "The Language Learner's Proficiency Scale", © 1989 by Terry Marshall, from *The Whole World Guide to Language Learning*, published by Intercultural Press, Inc.; "Strategy Inventory for Language Learning", Version 5.1, © 1990 by Rebecca Oxford, from *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*, published by Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

LANGUAGE COORDINATORS RESOURCE KIT

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SECTION FIVE: PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

COMMONLY ASKED QUESTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Peace Corps training programs around the world have been teaching hundreds of languages to thousands of Volunteers since 1961. In some countries, Peace Corps has been the first to ever teach a particular language formally. In others, Peace Corps has been the first to teach the language according to principles of communicative language teaching and competency based- instruction. Because of its experience with such a number of languages (over 200) and the variety of contexts for teaching, Peace Corps has had to find reliable answers to the important questions about the language learning process that are most frequently asked by learners and teachers.

You can use this information, adapted from *Language Learning Strategies for Peace Corps Volunteers* , to answer questions that the Trainees and language instructors in your program often ask.

CAN ADULTS LEARN FOREIGN LANGUAGES?

It is commonly thought that children are the best language learners, and that it is very difficult, if not impossible, for older people to learn a new language. In fact, that is not true. Research shows that there is no decline in the ability to learn as people get older. Except in the case of hearing or vision loss, the age of the adult learner is not a major factor in their ability to learn a new language. Negative stereotypes of the older learner as a poor learner, and inappropriate learning and teaching strategies are the greatest obstacles to adult language learning.

In some ways, adults are better language learners than children. Adults have developed learning strategies and have more experience in learning. Children give the

appearance of learning languages more easily because they are better at pronouncing them. Adults almost always have a foreign accent when they learn a new language, while children do not. We also expect less of children. When they learn a little, we are pleased. Adults, though, have greater expectations of themselves and others as language learners, and easily become discouraged if they do not learn rapidly. But children do not necessarily learn faster, and many older adults have successfully learned second and third languages.

WHAT IS THE BEST WAY TO LEARN A LANGUAGE?

There is no "one and only" way that works for everybody. Learning a language is a highly individual process and consists of a combination of factors. The most important factor is not the teacher or the course. The most important factor is the learners, and their contribution to the process of learning. Learner's motivation, reason for learning the language, need to communicate, and attitude are all very important.

Although there is no single ideal way to learn a foreign language, it helps considerably to try to find opportunities to practice the language, especially speaking and listening. Shyness and fear of using the new language can considerably slow your progress. Try to develop a comfortable and worry-free approach; for example, in attitude toward mistakes.

CAN LEARNERS AVOID MAKING MISTAKES?

One of the biggest problems that language learners must overcome is their hesitancy to make mistakes. They naturally want to express themselves well, but the truth is that there is no way to learn a language without making plenty of mistakes. One must practice to learn, and when you practice you will make errors. But usually you will be understandable, even with some mistakes. And the more you speak, the better your foreign language becomes. So learners need to overcome their shyness and use the language they are learning!

Do not be afraid of mistakes. Even when native speakers smile at learners' performance, remember that it is usually a friendly smile and they admire learners for their effort as well as for what they have already achieved in the new language. Native speakers generally focus their attention on the content of the message and not on the performance or grammar. Look at errors as part of the learning process and do not let them discourage learners from practicing. Without practice they cannot be successful. Later in this Resource Kit we will talk more about how to classify errors and use them to help students learn better.

WHAT SHOULD LEARNERS DO WHEN THEY DON'T UNDERSTAND SOMETHING?

Guessing is a very important part of foreign language learning. Even very advanced learners have to rely on guessing. Do not get discouraged or frustrated when a guess is wrong. The more learners try the better they will become. After some practice they will find that it is not necessary to get the meaning of every word or phrase in order to understand the message. Learn to treat uncertainty as part of the process of language learning. Relate guessing to a specific situation, sentence context, and speaker's intention. If learners don't understand, they should ask for clarification of words or phrases which are not clear.

HOW LONG WILL IT TAKE TO LEARN A NEW LANGUAGE?

This question cannot be answered in one sentence for all learners and all languages. Achieving fluency in a foreign language depends on many factors. There are "easier" and "more difficult" languages for an English speaker. There are languages in which it is much easier to master speaking and listening skills than reading and writing skills and vice versa. There are also different types of learners. Some want to be perfect, want to rely on familiar rules and structures, and do not want to use the language unless they are confident about how they are going to perform. Others are afraid to appear ridiculous and slow down their learning by denying themselves opportunities to practice. Still others are impatient, want to learn everything at once, and get discouraged by lack of immediate results. Some learners are rule-oriented, while others rely on intuition. Some are shy, while others are sociable. Some have been exposed to foreign languages before, while for others it is the first foreign language experience. It is not possible to predict how much time achieving fluency will take, since it is a very individual process.

You will be safe if you do not expect too much at the beginning stage. Set realistic objectives that you can fulfill, and do not let yourself get discouraged. You can avoid developing a negative attitude toward teaching or learning a language when you realize that success comes slowly, step by step, at each stage of learning.

WHY ARE SOME LEARNERS MORE SUCCESSFUL THAN OTHERS?

Success in learning a foreign language depends on many factors. One is the learner's native ability to learn a foreign language. Another is previous experience learning new languages. Yet another is strong motivation and a positive attitude. Finally, appropriate learning strategies are very helpful for foreign language learning. Your In-Country Resource Center has materials to help you expand your repertoire of language learning strategies.

WHAT ARE STRATEGIES FOR LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES?

Learning a foreign language is facilitated by using certain techniques or strategies which help learners to achieve particular goals. For example, in order to memorize new words learners might repeat them aloud or associate them with images in their minds. In other words, they use *a specific strategy* to memorize vocabulary.

Many strategies are helpful in learning a foreign language. Some are most useful for learning speaking skills, while others work best for reading skills. Some are most effective at the beginning stage, while others are preferred by advanced learners. Some strategies work well with systematic, organized students, while others are preferred by learners who rely on their intuition and use their imagination.

OTHER SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

These are answers to some of the most common questions that Trainees and Volunteers ask, but there will be many others. It is up to the Language Coordinator to guide learners and instructors to reliable resources and references about language learning. What these individuals believe about language learning will have a powerful influence on how they go about studying lessons or teaching them. Materials in this section can be helpful, as well as reference materials for TEFL PCVs and such books as *How To Be a More Successful Language Learner* (TR089) and *Language Learning Strategies for Peace Corps Volunteers* (R0069).

WHAT THIS SECTION CONTAINS

This section contains:

- basic information about principles and philosophy of Peace Corps training, adult learning and Peace Corps approaches to language training.
- basic concepts in communicative, competency-based language teaching.
- techniques of successful classroom management.
- proven language learning activities.
- useful resources that can help you in your job.

IDENTIFYING YOUR OWN LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE PRINCIPLES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

People come into Peace Corps Language Training from many different kinds of backgrounds. Some have a lot of practical experience, but little formal training. Others have advanced degrees in linguistics but may never have had experience teaching the language or teaching it to adult learners. So everyone involved in language teaching has a different set of areas of skill or knowledge that they need to supplement with additional information.

In order to help you assess what you need more information on, we have developed this brief checklist of some of the basic ideas and issues that Peace Corps has learned about language teaching over the years. For each of the items below, select the letter of the response that best describes your individual level of knowledge and your ability to apply that knowledge to your work:

In each of the areas listed below, select the letter of the response that best describes you current level of understanding and expertise:

A. I understand these concepts, and apply them to my program.
B. I understand these concepts, but can't apply them to my program.
C. I don't fully understand these concepts, and can't apply them to my program.
D. I don't think these concepts are important to my program.

Items that you marked with a B or C will probably need further exploration and study.

KNOWLEDGE OF LEARNING THEORIES AND LANGUAGE TEACHING TECHNIQUES

1. I am aware of the relevant issues of training and adult language learning and their impact on the design and implementation of my program in these areas:

_____ Peace Corps training philosophy and goals
_____ Peace Corps language training philosophy and goals
_____ Adult learning and experiential learning
_____ The four learning styles
_____ 4MAT Lessons
_____ Special needs of adult and problem language learners
_____ Competency-based language teaching
_____ Communicative approaches to language teaching
_____ Differences between language learning and language acquisition and the implications of these differences in the classroom
_____ Applying communicative language teaching to grammar and pronunciation
_____ Common language-teaching methodologies and techniques including Total Physical Response and the Audio-Lingual Method

3. _____ I know the basic issues involved and techniques for managing a learner-centered classroom and can demonstrate these techniques to my teaching staff.

4. _____ I have a large repertoire of classroom activities to practice and apply the language content in and out of the classroom. These activities appeal to a range of students with differing learning styles and strategies.

5. _____ I know the relevant strategies for effective self-directed language learning and can communicate these to my teaching staff and provide the trainees with structured practice using these strategies.

6. _____I know the basic terminology of my profession -- both as a language trainer and as a Peace Corps trainer.

7. _____ I know about additional Peace Corps resources that are available to me and how to access them.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

WHAT IS PEACE CORPS?

WHAT IS PEACE CORPS?

Since 1961, Peace Corps Volunteers have been sharing their skills and energies with people in the developing world. They are helping these people learn new ways to fight hunger, disease, poverty, and lack of opportunity. In return, Volunteers are seeing themselves, their country, and the world from a new perspective.

It is a world that has changed dramatically since John F. Kennedy issued an Executive Order to create the Peace Corps on March 1, 1961. Over 150,000 Americans have been Peace Corps Volunteers since it began. At the invitation of host governments, Volunteers have served in more than 100 countries. The Peace Corps is the only American government agency that places its people--the Volunteers--in communities to live and work directly with the people of developing nations.

Today approximately 7,000 Volunteers are working in over 90 countries. They spend two years of their lives working directly with the people of those nations to make life better.

WHAT ARE THE THREE GOALS OF PEACE CORPS?

The Peace Corps was created to promote world peace and friendship. Specifically, its goals are:

- to help the people of interested countries meet their need for trained men and women;
- to help promote a better understanding of the American people on the part of the people served;
- to promote a better understanding of other people on the part of the American people.

WHO ARE PEACE CORPS VOLUNTEERS?

The Peace Corps Volunteers are men and women with dozens of different skills. Three to five years of work experience and/or a college degree are required--as is a serious commitment to help. Specifically, Peace Corps Volunteers have backgrounds as: agriculturalists, natural resource managers (foresters), teacher trainers, liberal arts generalists, fishery specialists, engineers, business people, nurses and other health professionals, home economists, skilled trades people, and educators.

Any healthy adult U.S. citizen is eligible for consideration. Volunteers come from all ethnic backgrounds and may be any age from 19 to 90. There is no age limit for serving. Married couples may serve as Volunteers if both can work and are qualified.

WHAT DOES PEACE CORPS REQUIRE FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING?

For many assignments, a language other than English is required. The U.S. law that established the Peace Corps states that Volunteers must learn the language sufficiently to carry out their work. Since previous knowledge of another language is not required of applicants, Peace Corps provides intensive language training for new Volunteers.

WHAT DO PEACE CORPS VOLUNTEERS DO?

Volunteers work for their host country government department, agency, or organization. They are supervised by and work with host country nationals. They are subject to local laws.

A living allowance in the local currency is issued to Volunteers to cover housing, food, essentials, and a little extra spending money. When service is completed, Volunteers receive a small readjustment allowance to help them resettle in the U.S. Although no one becomes wealthy as a Peace Corps Volunteer, most former Volunteers say that it is one of the most significant experiences in their lives.

THE THREE GOALS OF PEACE CORPS

1. TO HELP THE PEOPLE OF INTERESTED COUNTRIES MEET THEIR NEEDS FOR TRAINED MEN AND WOMEN.

2. TO HELP PROMOTE A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE ON THE PART OF THE PEOPLE SERVED.

3. TO PROMOTE A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF OTHER PEOPLE ON THE PART OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE..

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

PEACE CORPS TRAINING PHILOSOPHY AND GOALS

This material was developed for the *PATS Manual* to provide an overview of the basic assumptions behind Peace Corps training. It is a compilation of materials and ideas that have been used successfully in Peace Corps countries worldwide and that present proven models and examples consistent with Peace Corps guidelines for training design and documentation formats. It is not a directive that all posts must follow exactly. It does not provide standard answers or predetermined specifics for training designs or schedules. These things must be developed in country to meet the particular needs of the project and tasks for which Trainees and Volunteers have been recruited.

OVERVIEW OF PEACE CORPS TRAINING

• Training is a critical element of the Peace Corps Volunteer (PCV) support system. Through the various training activities that occur, Volunteer skills and knowledge are enhanced, appropriate attitudes are delineated, and an understanding of the host culture is achieved. All of these can positively impact the effectiveness of a project through improved technical, language, and cross-cultural skills of PCVs.

• Training refers to all of the learning activities that occur over the course of a Volunteer's involvement with Peace Corps (PC) Peace Corps training is considered to be an on-going 27-30 month process which begins when invitational materials are received by the applicant and continues throughout Volunteer service. The PC training process is a continuum that usually includes:

- Invitation Packet
- Pre-Departure Orientation (PDO)
- Pre-Service Training (PST)
- In-Service Training (IST)
- Mid-Service Conference (MSC)
- Close of Service Workshop (COS)

• Although training is often thought of in terms of specific events, it may also involve learning though informal contacts, newsletters, personal health and safety activities, and other experiences or resources with which the Volunteer comes into contact during a PC tour.
• At each post, one staff member is delegated authority by the Country Director to oversee all training operations. The title of the staff member selected may vary from post to post, but the overall training responsibilities are similar. In some countries, the Programming and Training Officer (PTO) is given this assignment; in others, an Associate Peace Corps Director (APCD); and in others a Training Director (TD) is assigned. Whatever the title, this person is responsible for ensuring the successful design, implementation, and evaluation of post training activities. This responsibility does not necessarily require active involvement in all training events/activities, but may involve responsibility for managing contractors, PC staff, and any others who provide training to PCVs.

TRAINING PHILOSOPHY

• The process of Peace Corps training is based on the principles of experiential adult learning. These methodologies and techniques demonstrate respect for each trainee and trainer as adults possessing valuable individual experiences and skills. As you develop training programs, strive to build on this knowledge and involve both the Trainees and trainers in the learning and teaching process.
• The content of training is largely determined by the knowledge, skills and attitudes required to implement the project in question.
• All Peace Corps training events should:
- represent collaborative efforts between Peace Corps staff, host agencies, training contractors and Volunteers.
- develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required by PCV's to successfully implement projects and to integrate into their communities.
- present and/or reinforce a model of the development process that promotes self-sufficiency, community needs assessment and recognition, problem analysis, critical thinking, and problem solving.
- integrate each component within a given training event and build upon previous training events.
- include mechanisms for evaluation of Trainees and Volunteers, immediate feedback, and constructive recommendations.

As you develop PSTs, conduct training program evaluations, or complete any training-related task, incorporate this philosophy into your work.

PEACE CORPS TRAINING GOALS

Even though training for Volunteer assignments varies greatly according to project need, common goals weave through every training program and event. These common goals, developed by Peace Corps trainers, are listed below.

- To provide Volunteers and Trainees with basic technical, cross-cultural/community, language, and personal health and safety skills that allow them to serve effectively as they live and work productively and positively with host country people.
- To help Volunteers and Trainees understand the development process, including the involvement of women and youth.
- To model an approach to development by providing training that encourages critical thinking, creative problem solving, information gathering and analysis, flexibility, patience, professionalism, and self-sufficiency.
- To develop in Volunteers strong skills permitting them to function effectively in helping others to define and solve problems.
- To enhance Volunteers' understanding of the most productive ways to develop counterpart and co-worker relationships, and to demonstrate the value and methods of sharing knowledge.
- To increase Volunteers' knowledge and understanding of the Peace Corps mission and the project development process, as well as general Peace Corps and country-specific policies.
- To provide Volunteers with tools to manage the communication process effectively by utilizing listening skills, feedback, and non-verbal communication.
- To provide Volunteers with effective skills for making a transition to a new culture using observation, information gathering and validation.
- To provide Volunteers with skills that enable them to manage loneliness, isolation, and stress effectively, and to follow the principles of basic nutrition, hygiene, and personal health and safety.
- To assist Volunteers in understanding their technical assignment and in developing the skills necessary to perform their jobs.
- To provide Trainees with a clear understanding of what is expected of them as Volunteers; enabling them to set personal and professional goals and to measure their progress in achieving these goals.
- To expose Trainees to the realities of being a Volunteer.
- To assist Volunteers at the close of their service by facilitating their re-entry into the United States.

UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS

Inherent in the Peace Corps training philosophy and goals are underlying assumptions, stated as ideals towards which Peace Corps training constantly strives. These assumptions can be summarized as follows:

- Quality world-wide training requires:
- a shared philosophy and policy;
- a common set of minimum standards and appropriate evaluation instruments; and sufficient central management structure to support, maintain and evaluate delivery of training services.
- Training is a dynamic process, requiring continuous assessment and revision.
- Each post must assign overall responsibility for the in-country training program to one staff member in order to ensure consistent quality and follow up from one event to another.
- Peace Corps promotes staff development through TOTs and workshops, with the goal of enhancing the capacity of trainers to design and deliver integrated training programs.
- The link between training and programming is critical. Training designs must be based on the specific competencies required for PCVs to effectively implement projects.
- A training program based on defined competencies and behavioral objectives allows both staff and Trainees an opportunity to measure their progress in achieving those competencies.
- Adult learning methodologies and techniques are ideally suited to achieving PC training goals, and can provide a model for PCVs in their own attempts to transfer skills and knowledge.
- Training is a continuous process, covering the entire period of PCV service. Although the major portion of training is provided during PST, initial training cannot address all of the training needs of PCVs. Events, such as ISTs, held during PCV service are designed to focus on the specific training needs of current PCVs.
- Staging and the PST involve a qualification process: Trainees do not automatically qualify for service. Trainees must demonstrate proficiency in the basic competencies, both personal and professional, required to successfully interact in their communities and perform effectively in their site assignments.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

PEACE CORPS LANGUAGE TRAINING

GOALS

Peace Corps language training has three kinds of goals: achievement of competencies, proficiency level attainment, and language learning skills development. First, Peace Corps language training aims to provide Trainees and Volunteers with the specific competencies that are required in their living and work situations. These competencies, determined through on-going needs assessments, comprise many of the objectives of language the language training curriculum during Pre-Service Training. Second, Peace Corps language training in many countries helps Trainees reach a minimum proficiency level as part of the requirements for being sworn in as Volunteers. Attainment of oral proficiency is measured by a standard oral proficiency interview conducted by trained testers. Third, recognizing that language learning is a long-term process, Peace Corps promotes the development of continuing language learning skills during Pre-Service Training. After swearing in, Volunteers manage their continued language development by employing language learning strategies, working with tutors, and using self-study materials.

METHODS

The competency-based approach has been adopted for Peace Corps language program curricula worldwide because it bases the language program content on learners' needs. However, the competency-based approach does not dictate any single method of teaching. Because there is no single best way to learn a language and because learners have many different learning styles, Peace Corps does not endorse any one methodology for language teaching. Basically, instructors should employ a variety of methods, based on the most recent professional standards. Current training of Peace Corps

language teachers includes methods and techniques based on the Natural Approach, the Communicative Approach, and elements from the Audio-Lingual method.

LISTENING FIRST

For beginning level learners, sessions early in PST and introductory portions of most lessons in the PST should emphasize listening skills, not forcing learners to repeat new material immediately. Students should be required at times to listen to new material without being able to see it written out. This will help them avoid becoming too dependent on the written form of the new language. Learners need to develop an ear for the sounds of the new language. During the course of the PST, the emphasis on speaking and writing may increase.

READING

Educated Americans are used to learning through print material and will not be satisfied with speaking and listening activities only. Although lessons should emphasize the speaking and listening skills our learners need to master most, instructors should also include reading and writing activities that support the oral lessons. Worksheets and other writing exercises can be given for homework from the very start. For many languages, developing reading skills is key for Volunteers to continue to learn the language.

VARIETY WITHIN AN ORGANIZED LESSON

Lessons should contain a variety of activities in order to appeal to different learning styles. This variety should be provided in a four-step sequence of activities which reflect current understanding of adult learning and of language acquisition.

- First, lessons should begin with non-stressful review and warm-up activities which focus learners on previously studied material in a personal, enjoyable way.
- Second, the lesson should proceed to introducing new material, relating it to previously learned items and to the students' needs.
- Third, and most important, the lesson should engage learners in extensive practice with the new material.
- Finally, there should be an attempt to have the learners use the new language in a creative way, using or simulating outside the classroom settings. Lessons should progress from activities which the teacher dominates or controls to activities in which the learners have more control over choices, setting their own pace and deciding what they will say. Students must progress beyond simple repetition of pre-formulated dialogs.

GRAMMAR

Grammar is an important aspect of the language program, but it is not the overriding goal of the program to produce speakers who can explain their new language in terms of its systems. Rather, grammar explanations and practice activities (drills and written exercises) should be linked to the real-life purposes for which the student is learning the language, what we are calling the competencies. Grammatical accuracy is more important as students' proficiency increases and as more formal contexts are treated, e.g., introducing oneself at a meeting. Instructors need to provide students with *practice* with structures. Students can consult grammar reference materials for explanations in English.

LEARNER RESPONSIBILITY

Peace Corps encourages learners to take an active role in their learning through keeping language notebooks, discussing their learning with their instructors, and monitoring their own progress on competency checksheets. Learners should consciously attempt to develop and use a variety of strategies in their language learning, and Peace Corps has developed materials to help them in this effort.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

LEARNING STYLE THEORY

This information has been adapted from *Teaching English in Large Multi-Level Classes.* There is a simple Learning Style Inventory in the sample session materials in Section 9 (TOT) of this Kit.

THE EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE AND LEARNING STYLE THEORY

David Kolb is an exponent of experiential learning. He hypothesizes that people learn by going through the steps of the Experiential Learning Cycle, in which we start by having some sort of experience, then we reflect on this experience, generalize from it, and finally apply what we have learned from it to a new experience. Kolb thinks that people have different preferences for learning. Some of us have experience after experience but hardly reflect on them at all. Some of us are quite reflective, but like a quiet life and shy away from experiencing anything too unusual. Others reflect and analyze, but stop there, without making decisions to apply the reflection and analysis to new situations. Kolb states that for a full learning experience to take place, learners must complete all four steps of the Learning Cycle. He suggests that teachers can facilitate learning by consciously taking students through the Learning Cycle of experience, reflection, analysis and application.

What kind of learner are you? Do you like to learn from specific experiences, and from how you feel about these experiences? Do you like to learn from watching and listening, and make your judgments only after careful observation? Do you like to learn through a systematic analysis of a situation? Do you like to learn by doing things? Learning style theory measures preferences. If your preference is for learning by observation, don't think that this means you can't take any action. It simply means that you prefer to learn by watching and thinking, not that you are incapable of action. If your preference is for learning from feelings, this does not mean that you cannot learn from thinking. The theory simply states that, starting with yourself, the more you know about

different learning styles, the more you can help others identify and build on their learning style preferences.

FOUR BASIC LEARNING STYLES

There are four basic styles of learning preference that determine how we perceive and how we process new information. These styles reflect the kind of learning we feel most comfortable with and the qualities we look for in an effective learning environment.

1. CONCRETE EXPERIENCE

Learning From Feeling
Learning from specific experiences
Relating to people
Sensitivity to feelings and people

2. REFLECTIVE OBSERVATION

Learning By Watching And Listening
Careful observation before making a judgment
Viewing things from different perspectives
Looking for the meaning of things

3. ABSTRACT CONCEPTUALIZATION

Learning By Thinking
Logical analysis of ideas
Systematic planning
Acting on an intellectual understanding of a situation

4. ACTIVE EXPERIMENTATION

Learning By Doing
Ability to get things done
Risk taking
Influencing people and events through action

LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCE

Kolb's Learning Cycle has been further developed by Bernice McCarthy. McCarthy has applied experiential learning theory to the classroom and described four learning style preferences. Each of the four learning styles is based on a step in the Learning Cycle. She calls these styles, Imaginative Learners, Analytical Learners, Common Sense Learners and Dynamic Learners.

1. IMAGINATIVE LEARNERS

Imaginative learners are most comfortable in the first step of the Learning Cycle, in the quadrant between Concrete Experience and Reflective Observation. The special skills of these learners lie in observing, questioning, visualizing, imagining, inferring, diverging, brainstorming and interacting. They respect the authority of a teacher when it has been earned.

You can recognize these imaginative students by how well they respond to stories and poetry, and how they like to turn ideas on their heads to see if the ideas remain intact. An activity that these learners excel in is Plus/Minus. Put a statement on the board, like "The teaching of English should be stopped immediately," or "Parents should arrange their children's marriages." Give students three minutes in which

to come up with as many ideas as they can on why they support this idea, and then three minutes to come up with as many ideas as they can on why they disagree with this idea. The imaginative learners enjoy the chance to come up with divergent ways of looking at life.
Problem-posing activities, which connect students' personal experiences with learning language, are particularly effective with imaginative learners, who perceive the problem-posing dialogues on a direct and immediate level and connect them seamlessly to their own experiences.

2. ANALYTICAL LEARNERS

Analytical learners are most comfortable in the second step of the Learning Cycle, in the quadrant between Reflective Observation and Abstract Conceptualization. The special skills of these learners lie in patterning, organizing, analyzing, seeing relationships, identifying parts, ordering, prioritizing, classifying and comparing. They prefer a teacher to maintain a traditional role and to run lessons with a clear chain of command. Analytical students tend to get restless if they think too much time is being spent on fun and games. For these students schooling is a serious business. They enjoy analyzing the structures of the language, taking the language apart and putting it back together again. They appreciate a straight-up approach to grammar, explaining the rules and also the notions and concepts behind them. Their eyes light up at the mention of categorizing.
As native speakers of a language, some parts of its grammar may be new to you. You know what's right, simply because it sounds right, but you can't always explain why. You acquired the language as you grew up and did not have to consciously learn the rules. However, the analytical learners in your class expect you to be explicit and clear in your analysis of the language.

There are simple ways of maintaining your credibility in the face of these expectations. For example, take the issue of error correction. Your analytical learners have probably been told to avoid making mistakes by other language teachers. However, research shows that language learning is a process, and mistakes are part of that process. Learners have their own internal syllabus and will eventually correct themselves as long as they continue to be exposed to meaningful language. Your analytical learners will not believe this, and you have to cope with their disbelief.
Lectures are reassuring to analytical learners. They are comfortable with the teacher being in charge. Helping them make good use of this approach by teaching them good note-taking techniques is an effective way of playing to their strengths.

3. COMMON SENSE LEARNERS

Common Sense Learners are most comfortable in the third step of the Learning Cycle, in the quadrant between Abstract Conceptualization and Active Experimentation. The special skills of these learners lie in exploring and problem-solving, experimenting, seeing, predicting, tinkering, recording and making things work. They see a teacher's authority as necessary to good organization.

Though this resource kit has plenty of ideas on producing worksheets, cue cards, case studies, maps, crosswords and games, you probably will never produce enough to keep your common sense learners happy. These learners eat up small concrete tasks. They also tend to rely heavily on kinesthetic involvement to learn, using body senses as a focus for understanding. These are the students who usually know where their belongings are, and seem to take pleasure in turning over the neatly copied pages of their notebooks. You can respond to their preferences by developing elaborate and even elegant ways of using your blackboard. Splurge. Buy colored chalks, or ask friends in the States to send you some. Use both upper and lower cases. Highlight important points with asterisks, underlining, boxes. Take special care over the presentation of the notes and tasks you develop, and you will be rewarded by seeing the pleasure and appreciation on the faces of your common sense learners.

Most Peace Corps language programs have a tradition of putting up pictures, posters or displays. Recruit common sense learners as your allies. Put them in charge of your visual aids. Problem-solve with them on ways to make and keep your classroom a visually interesting place to be. Try to present activities that have end-products, something tangible that these learners can show themselves for their efforts. Drawings, charts, questionnaires, cartoons, will all appeal to them.

4. DYNAMIC LEARNERS

Dynamic learners are most comfortable in the fourth step of the Learning Cycle, in the quadrant between Active Experimentation and Concrete Experience. The special skills of these learners lie in integrating, evaluating, verifying, explaining, summarizing, representing and focusing. They tend to disregard authority. The dynamic learners will present you with your biggest challenge. These students tend, for better or for worse, to be the most physically active and to possess charismatic leadership qualities that attract the attention of their classmates. When you use Cooperative Learning techniques, you will find that these students can make or break group work. But when they do get positively involved, they are invaluable. Use them as much as you can as reporters who summarize and report back to the whole class on the group's activities. Debating and discussion activities can be a good place to channel the energy of

dynamic learners. Use the information you have gathered about your students' concerns to select debate topics that will capture attention.

Dynamic learners will keep you honest with their need to use real world language. It's easy to extend activities beyond the classroom walls and get students out interviewing local officials and experts, carrying out surveys and bringing in outside speakers. You will also want to use authentic examples of the language from newspapers, TV and other media. One caveat in using authentic materials is to avoid discussing the politics and prominent individuals of the country in which you are serving. Look out instead for items that relate to the Peace Corps project areas in your country, especially those of the the Trainees. It is often the dynamic learners who will take lead roles in this kind of activity.

VARIETY IN LEARNING ACTIVITIES

We know that no one learning style is better than another. People just learn best in different ways. By being aware of the Experiential Learning Cycle, the four learning styles, and the preferences of your imaginative, analytic, common sense, and dynamic learners, you can vary your activities so that you are playing to the strengths of all of your students.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

4MAT LESSONS

BACKGROUND

Bernice McCarthy developed the 4MAT lesson plan, which is based on the Learning Cycle and learning style needs. The 4MAT cycle can be used to organize daily lessons, theme-based units, or long-term planning. To develop a theme-based unit, for example, take a single theme and develop four sessions on that theme. Each of the four sessions corresponds to a step in the Learning Cycle, and each session focuses on the strengths of one of the four learning style types. The four steps in the cycle are: motivation, information, practice, and application.

DESCRIPTION

Each step in the cycle as an inseparable part of the whole unit. Each step builds on and expands the materials of the previous lesson. We recommend devoting one lesson to each step in the cycle, but you can adapt this as you see fit. Volunteers report dizziness and breathlessness if they try to fit all four steps into one fifty minute lesson, but it has been done. It is much easier to fit all four steps into a double lesson. Alternatively, some Volunteers expand certain steps, and may in some cases spend two hours on the Information step. The final decision is up to you. We can only say that a practical rule of thumb is one lesson for each step in the cycle. The important thing to remember is the flow and sequence of the Learning Cycle itself. As long as you follow that, the timing can be altered to suit your needs and the needs of your students. Let's look at each of the steps in turn.

1. MOTIVATION

In this step, provide a concrete experience and shift gradually from Concrete Experience to Reflective Observation. All of the students start here, but this first step appeals most to imaginative learners. Your role as the teacher is to motivate, to engage your students, and allow them to enter into the experience being introduced. Then students are given the opportunity to reflect on that experience. The activities

which can be used in this step include problem-posing, presenting a poem, reading an excerpt from a book, looking at pictures, discussing experiences, answering questionnaires, listening to songs, and webbing.

2. INFORMATION In this step, students shift from Reflective Observation to Abstract Conceptualization. All of the students work through this step, but this second lesson appeals most to analytic learners. Your role is to inform, to move your students from specific personal reality to the theoretical, and to an understanding of abstract conceptualization. This is the point at which students link their subjective experience with the content at hand. The activities used in this step include lectures, notetaking, deductive formulations of grammatical rules, mechanical drills, vocabulary expansion, and presentation of new concepts through diagrams, tables and charts.

3. PRACTICE In this step, students shift from Abstract Conceptualization to Active Experimentation. All of the students continue with this step, but this third lesson appeals most to common sense learners. Your role is to coach, to organize materials and activities so that your students can test their understanding of what they have learned. They have been taught skills and concepts and now they are asked to manipulate materials based on those skills and concepts. Students are then given the opportunity to extend what they have learned through selecting and individualizing their own experiments and manipulations.

The activities used in this step include worksheets, pair work, small group work, project planning, writing, creating cartoons, case studies, keeping records, polling classmates, and formulating questions on a text for others to answer.

4. APPLICATION Here students shift from Active Experimentation to Concrete Experience. All of the students continue to finish the cycle together, but this fourth lesson appeals most to dynamic learners. Your role is to evaluate and mediate. Students are required to apply and refine in a personal way what they have learned and then to share with others.

The activities in this step include gathering materials for projects and implementing project plans; sharing written work; critiquing each other's projects and being members of the audience in final presentations; and reporting back to the class on a project.

INTEGRATING 4MAT WITH OTHER MATERIALS

The 4MAT model follows a predictable cycle. Students reflect on a concrete experience, analyze information, practice new skills, and take independent action. While participating in the different phases of this process, your students have opportunities to develop their learning style strengths. This framework is a particularly useful tool when you are organizing lessons for classes of learners with different style preferences.

Once you've tried the 4MAT lesson plans, you will see how easy it is to take activities from other sources and slot them into a unit. With the 4MAT system firmly in place, your teaching will take on coherence and logic, and yet at the same time you will still have the flexibility to take occasional flights of fancy. Remember the boomerang principle: the enjoyment that you put into your teaching is what your class will project back at you.

QUESTIONS TO ASK YOURSELF

- What are your own learning style preferences?
- Can you identify different learning style preferences among your students? Which are the imaginative storytellers? Which are the analytic grammarians? Which are the common sense group workers? And which are the dynamic activists?
- What do each of these groups expect of you, their teacher?
- What activities will you use in the Motivation lesson? The Information lesson? The Practice lesson? And the Application lesson?

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND THE OLDER LEARNER

WHO IS AN OLDER LEARNER?

The older learner can excel in language study. The sometimes disappointing results of language training programs including older learners are often due to a lack of understanding of their particular learning styles.

• First, let's define what we mean by an "older learner." Older than whom? Is there a certain age bracket? Generally, we mean people who are more than 50 years old, as opposed to the broad category of "adult learners," which can include anyone older than a teenager. However, in many cases, the decisive characteristic is not the person's age, but how long he or she has been away from a learning environment, whether formal or informal.

• Of course, no older person possesses all of the characteristics described here for older learners, and some may not possess any of them. We merely give some generalities about older learners that may help you understand and serve their needs more successfully. Older learners, like learners of any age, will have differences in personal learning styles, preferred modes, and so on.

PHYSICAL FACTORS IN OLDER LEARNERS

More and more older adults are returning to school, taking up new careers, and working as volunteers in the United States and abroad. Research on learning in older adults has expanded, and new information about the ways older adults learn best is now available. This research applies to learning in any discipline, including second-language learning. We attempt to apply the general characteristics of older learners to the specifics of studying a second language.

1. SIGHT AND HEARING CHANGES

Some older adults may be experiencing changes in vision or hearing that make it harder to analyze the language input. Hearing and vision losses that come with older age, even when not significant in using one's native language, can provide an additional frustration to an adult trying to get the

precise sound or appearance of a word, thus decreasing self-confidence and motivation.

WHAT TRAINERS CAN DO

Trainers can lessen frustration by several means.

- First, a delayed period of oral production will give older learners a strong base of listening comprehension so they will not need to strain so much for every word. It will also help them to develop listening strategies, which make context more important than individual words or sounds. Along with this, you can put less stress on "perfect" pronunciation, spelling, etc., thus lessening their anxiety about hearing or seeing "perfectly."
- Second, you can provide many different kinds of activities for older Trainees, so that they learn to rely less on precise discrimination of sounds or letters, and more on the context, for comprehension.
- Finally, you should make sure your classroom conditions are as amenable as possible to those with hearing or vision problems. Make sure the room has plenty of light. Make visual aids large enough to be clearly seen, and write clearly and legibly when you use the blackboard. Try to speak clearly and loudly enough, without distorting the natural sound of the words you are teaching. Situate older learners with problems like these in locations that will provide the clearest input.

2. SHORT-TERM MEMORY

Some older adults have weaker short-term memories, which means that material presented may take longer to incorporate into their language systems. But research shows that this is not necessarily the case; in fact, older learners show no significant differences from younger learners in retention when the material is well learned initially.

- Problems with short-term memory seem to come from three kinds of input: (1) meaningless learning, especially when the learner has no handy way to organize or use it (memorizing word lists and performing repetitive drills are not useful to the older learner); (2) complex learning, especially if interruptions take place during the learning process (lengthy explanations, especially of grammar points, usually have little impact on the older learner's acquisition and may create confusion); and (3) learning that requires reevaluation of earlier learning, especially if the tasks are confusing or unusual (introducing something one way on one day and in another context on another day, for example, could create confusion, especially if the activity requires a lot of inductive thinking, since the older learner might come to incorrect conclusions).

The factor of short-term memory strengthens the case for a communicative approach, since it minimizes using rote memorizations or drills that are likely to cause the older learner problems.

WHAT TRAINERS CAN DO

• Older learners need a larger quantity of comprehensible input than younger learners (plenty of clear, meaningful, and interesting materials) in order to build their stock of language. This can be done in various ways. A longer program for older learners is ideal--provided it does not lessen their opportunity for rest and relaxation. Short of that possibility, a trainer should reinforce new material by giving learners plenty of time to use and integrate it.

• Older learners can be helped in exercising their memory if they are given a delayed period of oral production. In this way, they can direct their attention entirely to comprehension, without the anxieties of having to produce so muchlanguage in the classroom.

• Finally, integrative, competency-based tasks will probably work best, because they are meaningful and create strong incentives for mastery.
Additionally, they can be easily related to existing competencies in the learner's first language.

3. SLOWER RESPONSES

Older adults are not as quick in their responses as younger ones. This physical reality, and the fact that most intelligence and achievement tests have traditionally had a built-in speed factor, are probably why people have gotten the--incorrect--idea that intelligence or learning ability declines with age.

• One researcher has separated intelligence into two types: "fluid" and "crystallized." Fluid intelligence, which favors memory span, sensory perception, and flexibility in new situations, declines somewhat with age, while crystallized intelligence, which calls for judgment, knowledge, and experience, actually increases with age. As you evaluate the needs of your Trainees in light of these two kinds of intelligence, you will probably find that your older Trainees will do best in tasks requiring their judgment and life experience and less well in tasks requiring a great deal of precision or speed.

• This does not mean that they are acquiring less or that they are "slower learners." It means they are struggling to integrate the new material into the information they already know. It may also mean that they are monitoring their accuracy more frequently, since they have a greater number--relative to younger learners--of prior rules in short- and long-term memory.

WHAT TRAINERS CAN DO

The fact that older learners have slower responses suggests that the older learner should feel no time pressure in the classroom. This is true for all learners, but is especially important for older learners, who can easily be demoralized by comparing their speed of response with that of younger learners.You may believe that having the Trainee produce language rapidly is an important goal in your program.

Examine carefully whether speed is really a necessary function of the competencies the Trainee needs to perform or merely for academic purposes like tests or drills. If speed is an important part of the competency, you can encourage greater speed as the Trainees' confidence increases. However, if the speed is needed only for tests or drills, it serves no useful purpose and should be eliminated as a goal.

4. PRONUNCIATION

Finally, research indicates that adult learners of any age are less likely than children to speak the new language "like a native," or free of an accent. Since muscular patterns in and around the mouth as well as phoneme patterns become more reinforced over the years, it may be particularly hard for an older learner to produce new sounds with complete accuracy. Add to this the embarrassment at moving the mouth in new ways, and you may find older learners doing less well than their younger counterparts in pronunciation.

WHAT TRAINERS CAN DO

- Since the goal of Peace Corps language training is to be able to communicate in the target-language culture, not to be taken for a member of that culture, the goal of nativelike pronunciation is not important in your training program. Your focus should be on Trainee comprehensibility, which is no harder for older learners than others.
- To some extent, those Trainees who want most to have native like pronunciation will be those that excel most at it, because they will work hardest on their own to achieve it. You can be most helpful to these highly motivated Trainees as a native speaker when communicating with them one on one.

ATTITUDES AMONG OLDER LEARNERS

Affective or attitudinal factors are commonly present in older learners whenever they are learning something new, but they are even more intense in the anxiety-producing task of learning a new language. You can have a decisive and positive effect on those attitudes.

1. HIGHER FILTERS

Older learners tend to have higher affective filters--that is, they are easily embarrassed or ashamed by what they see as big mistakes. This is sometimes a result of their having been outside a learning environment for a long time and sometimes a result of their having studied earlier in a much more rigid, less supportive environment. This characteristic can have many manifestations: unwillingness to participate, dropping out of an activity in progress, temperamental outbursts, depression, or even leaving a training session before it is over. These are serious problems and should be treated as such. Lowering the affective filter is probably the most important thing you can do for all of your Trainees. But it is even more important to work on this with older adults, because they will probably put up more resistance to your attempts than younger, more confident learners.

WHAT TRAINERS CAN DO

• With older learners, lowering the affective filter means helping to build confidence on many levels and being patient with their developmental stages. It is also important to refrain from judgmental or critical comments, allowing "mistakes" to pass while learners reach the goal of greater communicative competence.

• Another thing the Trainer can do to lower the affective filter in older learners is to sometimes simply give them the words they are struggling to find when answering questions. This creates a sense of encouragement and lowers anxiety about participating in class.

• Finally, a minimum of attention should be paid to the monitor--that is, less emphasis should be given to grammar and other rules. Teaching too many rules often overwhelms and confuses the older learner and divides the class according to learning styles. Instead, efforts should be made to relax the monitor and thereby lower the affective filter, easing language production.

2. DISTRUST OF NON-TRADITIONAL CLASSROOMS

Sometimes, older learners may need to be reassured that your communicative activities are part of a larger purpose or plan. They may think of "school" as a place in which the students sit quietly while the teacher (who knows all the answers) lectures them. This, of course, never works in competency-based, communicative language learning. Contemporary methods place the learner at the center of the learning process and use many creative, participatory activities. These non-traditional approaches may lead some Trainees to mistakenly believe that their Trainers do not know what they are doing, leading to a clash of wills.

WHAT TRAINERS CAN DO

• You may need to demonstrate that your classroom has a more relaxed and creative atmosphere than classrooms of their childhood by your choice, not because you lack control or formal skills. This need not be directly stated, but shown through your careful guidance and conscientious "spiraling" of material.

• Convincing these learners that realistic communication activities will improve their language skills more than formal classroom routines will become easier as your training proceeds, because they will see the results for themselves. For example, an activity that requires role playing, singing, or following oral commands may make Trainees embarrassed at the beginning, but this discomfort usually disappears as they taste success. If resistance to nontraditional activities remains an issue, it is probably a result of the continuing frustration felt by learners who are not breaking through their affective barriers.

3. LOWER SELF-ESTEEM AS LEARNERS

Many people believe that older adults cannot learn a second language, contributing to low morale and low self-esteem in these learners. Sometimes older adults themselves believe this myth and feel doomed to failure. We have already discussed the possible origins of this misconception. It is important that it be dispelled as quickly as possible, to create a positive atmosphere for learning.

WHAT TRAINERS CAN DO

Here, as in other situations concerning attitude, you, can have enormous impact by showing in every way that you have confidence in the abiliy of each Trainee to acquire your language. When a Trainer truly believes that older adults are less capable, it is immediately apparent and can create a "self-fulfilling prophecy."

The best way for you to demonstrate your confidence in older learners is to examine your own attitudes on the subject. Are you privately giving up on older learners and demanding less of them in class? Are you overcomplimenting them in a way that shows you didn't expect them to achieve success? These two common ways of overcompensating for a lack of confidence in older learners can be as damaging as the other extremes of being too demanding or not supportive enough.

In addition, are you creating an atmosphere in which Trainees can work cooperatively, rather than competitively? A cooperative environment can make all the difference to an older learner. You may want to address the issue of older learners' ability directly in class, pointing out that no research whatsoever has indicated lower ability in older learners, and that in fact there are many factors that favor the older learner.

STRATEGIES, STYLES, AND MODES USED BY OLDER LEARNERS

Older Volunteers are likely to show a preference for the following learning strategies or styles:

- Field dependence, from years of experience in families and with coworkers on the job. Thus, the kinds of activities that include a realistic context will probably be most successful with and appreciated by your older learners.
- Induction, because of the highly developed critical skills that come from meeting the challenges of life (this despite the fact that older learners are more accustomed than younger learners to deductive approaches in schoollike settings). Some of the older Volunteers' best experiences in language training can be working in small groups to figure things out.
- The visual mode, because they do not trust their ability to hear accurately in the new language. They may even reject opportunities to learn by means of listening to the radio or television. In class, if pencil and paper are not available while the target language is being spoken, they may become

so nervous that their filters block learning through the auditory mode.

• You can work better with older learners if you recognize these preferences while at the same time making sure that no single strategy or mode predominates to the exclusion of others. In an orally oriented program such as yours, Trainees must be encouraged to rely less on written notes; you can wean older Trainees from constant note taking by retelling and re-presenting oral materials enough times that they build confidence in their listening abilities. At the same time, you can continue to write key words or phrases of your oral material clearly on the board.

OUT-OF-CLASSROOM CONSIDERATIONS

Finally, several considerations may be useful to Language Training Coordinators in structuring the nonclassroom aspects of the language training program and in discussing other services offered to Trainees with your co-workers. Here are a few suggestions for enriching the language acquisition of the older learner beyond the classroom.

• Older learners may need more repetition and practice than your class time allows, and there are creative ways to meet this need.

• Can you perhaps help to place the older learner in a situation where there are young children who can play language games with the learner and thus naturally reinforce phrases and structures? This can be a great form of natural reinforcement in a pleasant environment.

• Can you find another elderly person from your country who could become a companion to this older learner, perhaps someone with whom there is a shared interest? If the Trainee learns the words involved in, say, knitting or gardening, or other personal interests, related competencies can be acquired more easily.

• You might find a partner of another age as well. The important ingredient is a patient, friendly, communicative person who can act as a companion and guide during PST and perhaps beyond.

• And don't forget that older learners often know themselves what they need and how they learn best. Ask them how they feel about their training experience. They may have some ideas you haven't thought of. What's more, they will appreciate being asked.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

THE COMPETENCY-BASED CURRICULUM AND COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

LANGUAGE LEARNING FOR COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

A competency-based curriculum is related to the general goals of language instruction. When you studied English for the first time, what did you hope to be able to do? Perhaps you wanted to converse with English speakers, or correspond with a friend in an English-speaking country, or understand American movies or television shows. Perhaps you wanted to be able to read academic materials like this manual. Whatever you wanted to do, you were probably eager to find ways to adapt your classroom study of English to your purposes. Some language learners may have gotten plenty of tools to communicate in English, while others may have learned structures and rules that they now consider a waste of time.

What makes a language-learning effort worthwhile? We believe that language learning should foster communicative competence. This idea grew out of the realization that grammatically, or linguistically, competent speakers of a foreign language were often incompetent in its cultural dimension. Too often, foreign language teaching did not include features of appropriateness: using language in ways that fit the social and cultural context. You can certainly understand this goal, not now as a language learner, but as a Trainer of Peace Corps Volunteers. You are the primary person who can help lead your Trainees to that important goal of communicative competence.

PROMOTING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN YOUR LANGUAGE PROGRAM

Here is a checklist of ways to strive toward communicative competence in your language training program. We mention these six features, and the general goal of communicative competence, frequently throughout the manual, as criteria by which to judge your language training activities. If an

activity does not serve the goal of communicative competence,it doesn't belong in your program.

Summary Of Ways To Promote Communicative Competence:

- Create a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
- Encourage communication and do not stress correctness.
- Maximize peer interaction.
- Teach the language, not about the language.
- Use authentic language, not artificial classroom language.
- Be versatile and creative in your activities.

COMPETENCY-BASED CURRICULUM VS TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR-BASED CURRICULUM

A language-learning curriculum can be based on many different criteria, but the most common historically, by far, has been a grammar-based curriculum. Most foreign-language programs feature grammatical material as most important. Unfortunately, most students coming out of such programs have shown disappointingly low levels of language skill, and an equally disappointing lack of interest in further language study. The vast majority of language-learning researchers today believe that grammar is not the most logical basis on which to organize an effective language-learning program. Now, several other kinds of curricula are available for foreign-language programs, including a competency-based curriculum.

For Peace Corps programs, a competency-based curriculum may be the most effective. Competency-based programs consider the goal of learning a foreign language to be the ability to communicate effectively in that language--in other words, to do the same kinds of things in the foreign language that we learn to do in our native language. This idea, of course, is perfectly suited to the language training environment in which you are working, because the Trainee, indeed, will need to perform a wide variety of language behaviors in her new environment.

Competencies are the repertoire of verbal and associated behavior that a person needs to perform the tasks of daily life. A competency is the successful performance of a set of behaviors. If a person needs a competency to do a certain function, such as buying a bus ticket, the objective is for the learner to actually buy the ticket.

Naturally, the first competencies to be mastered in your training program will be those that pertain to the Trainees' basic survival in the new environment, and these are the competencies on which we focus. However, competencies can be chosen and ordered according to several standards. The important thing to bear in mind is that you are teaching language for useful, daily functions, not as an end in itself. Therefore, you should keep the desired competencies of your Trainees foremost in your mind, so that the materials you present will expand your Trainees' vital ability to communicate during their stay abroad.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

BACKGROUND OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

In the 1970s the Council of Europe addressed the problem of language learning among Europeans who needed to acquire a general communicative ability in a second language. These people wanted to prepare themselves to communicate socially on everyday matters with people from other countries, and to get around and lead a reasonably normal life when visiting another country. In other words, instead of learning a language as a subject at school these learners wanted to learn in order to communicate.

At the same time, linguists in America and elsewhere were considering the implications of Noam Chomsky's theories, which describe language as more complex, layered and creative than previously thought. This led to dissatisfaction with the notion that adults learn languages most effectively through a simple stimulus/response system of repetitions and rewards. There was a growing belief in the 1970s that language is more than a set of habits, and that language teaching needed to acknowledge this.

The Communicative Approach, which evolved from these sets of needs and ideas, is not a methodology. It is a theory based on current ideas of what language is and how it is learned and should be taught. Methods and techniques such as Information Gap, Total Physical Response, and the Natural Approach are examples of the Communicative Approach.

FIVE PRINCIPLES OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

The following five principles are central to the Communicative Approach.

- Classroom goals are focused on all aspects of communicating—including the purposes of communication (language functions), and not only grammar and vocabulary.
- Language is used in a social context and should be appropriate to setting, topic and participants. The focus must

be on authentic language used for a meaningful purpose.
- Fluency and accuracy are not equally important for all learning activities. At times it is not important to focus on accuracy, but on the meaning of what is being communicated. In other instances, accuracy is critical.
- Students should have to use the language, productively and receptively, in new contexts. This means they must be able to go beyond memorized sentences and expressions.
- Students should be able to express their opinions and share their ideas and feelings.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

There are several implications for the language classroom.
- First is that grammar instruction needs to support communication. An end-of-unit language test should measure not only how well students can form different grammar features, but on how well they can use them to express themselves in communication.
- Another implication is that the language taught should be authentic. Language classes should involve fewer lessons exemplified by "What is this?" "It's a book." Instead, there should be a lessons focus on things that people actually say and hear.
- A third implication is that there need to be learning activities in which the answers to questions are not known, the comments made by students are not predictable formulas, and the teacher is not controlling all aspects of the interaction.

The following chart compares the Communicative Approach and the Audio-Lingual Method.

	Audiolingual Method	Communicative Approach
GRAMMAR RULES	Not explained	Explain when necessary
MEANINGFUL COMMUNICATION	Limited	Central feature
PRONUNCIATION	Target is native-like pronunciation	Target is comprehensible pronunciation
USE OF TRANSLATION	Forbidden	Used when necessary
SEQUENCING OF LESSONS	Follows linguistic complexity	Follows learners' needs
TEACHER/STUDENT ROLES	Teacher-centered	Teacher facilitates student-to-student interaction
ATTITUDE TO ERRORS	Accuracy is emphasized	Errors are seen as part of learning process
BALANCE OF LANGUAGE SKILLS	Listening and speaking are emphasized	Skills are taught according to students' needs

ADVANTAGES OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

- Lessons tend to be interesting because they focus on learners' needs and interests and not just linguistic forms. There is less boring repetition of drills.
- Students are able to use the language in real situations immediately.
- Students are given more autonomy and responsibility, and this contributes to better motivation.
- Teachers are seen as facilitators, and not policemen, who are trying to catch students making mistakes.

DRAWBACKS

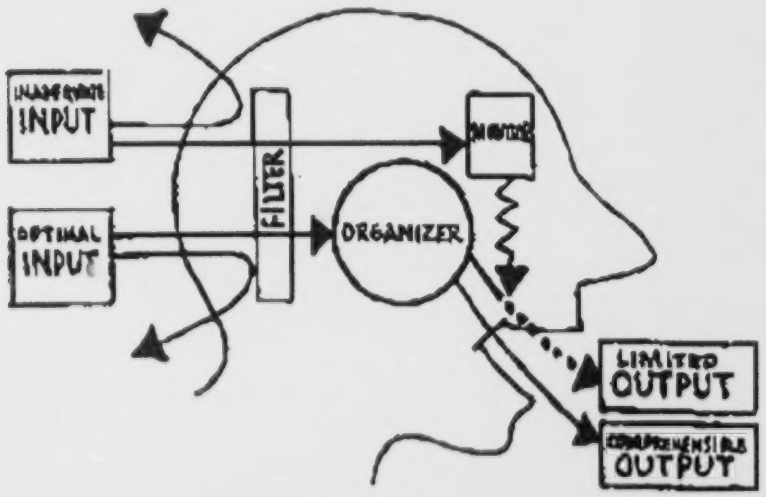
- A curriculum can seem random and chaotic if there is no attention to difficulty of language forms, especially for beginning level learners. Curriculum design is difficult and may be time-consuming.
- Lesson planning is rather complicated, since it involves more than having students listen and repeat. Teachers may initially need to spend a lot of time creating communicative activities.
- Finding, adapting, and using authentic materials can be difficult and time-consuming.
- Because instruction is not formulaic, teacher training is essential. Teachers need a clear understanding of their role in the classroom and the reasons for occasionally providing a translation or tolerating imperfect grammar or pronunciation, for example. They need to learn how to address students' needs without simply responding to students' individual whims and wishes.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

HOW LANGUAGE IS LEARNED: ONE THEORY

THE MONITOR MODEL

The following model is adapted from the monitor model developed by Stephen Krashen of the University of Southern California. This model is a useful way of thinking about language learning and explains a number of situations language learners experience. The drawing below depicts the monitor model.



EXPLANATION OF THE MODEL'S TERMS

INPUT

Input is the language the learner is exposed to either by reading or by listening. This input can be either inadequate or optimal.

Inadequate input: unnatural, contrived to demonstrate a grammar rule, boring, or too difficult for the learner at the moment.

Optimal input: language used in a real situation, understandable, interesting and including elements just slightly beyond the level of proficiency of the learner.

FILTER

The filter acts as a gate. It either opens to let the input through to the mind, where the learner can work with it, or it closes and does not let input through. For example, if the learner is anxious, the gate closes, and the input does not get through. If the learner relaxes, the gate opens and the input enters the learner's mind. The opening or closing of the gate is determined by the learner's attitudes and feelings, which are sometimes called affective factors. These include anxiety, motivation to learn the language, and self-confidence.

MONITOR

The monitor acts as a storehouse of conscious rules in the learner. The monitor contains all the grammar rules the learner has learned from formal language instruction. The monitor adjusts output to make it grammatically correct. Its role is limited to situations in which there is no time pressure and the emphasis is on form, not content. Language "learning" traditionally focuses on developing this aspect of the model in a student.

ORGANIZER

The organizer is an unconscious system of language elements, their meanings, and their relation to culture. The organizer creates this interconnected system from language experienced in natural settings. This organizer is at work when we acquire our native language and creates "fluency" in our native language. Foreign language "acquisition" focuses on this part of the model.

OUTPUT

Output is what learners produce, in oral or written form, in the new language. Fluent expression or output originates with the organizer, where meaning is located. This type of output is represented by the solid line in the model.

If learners have overactive monitors, their output is blocked. When they apply the conscious grammar rules they know to correct their output, it becomes jerky, slow, and tense. This type of output is represented by the dotted line in the model.

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND THE NATURAL APPROACH

The natural approach to language learning, which is based on the monitor model, was developed during the 1970s and 1980s primarily by Krashen and promoted among language teachers by his colleague, Tracy Terrell. The natural approach proposes that the more the process of *learning* a new language resembles the way children *acquire* a first language, the easier and more successful the learning will be. Thus, the natural approach asks teachers to find ways to make classroom conditions as much like the natural setting for

child language acquisition as possible. It means that language "play" accomplishes more than language "work." Natural-approach terminology would call this the difference between acquisition," which occurs in a natural setting for language use, versus "learning," which is classroom language study. The chart below summarizes differences between "learning" and "acquisition" according to the natural approach.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN LEARNING AND ACQUISITION

Learning	Acquisition
• conscious and self-conscious	• unconscious and unself-conscious
• can be memorized by rote	• requires comprehension
• based on grammatical order established by instructor or textbook	• based on natural order of acquisition similar to child's first language
• teaches about the language	• fosters language use
• fits a classroom format	• can take place anywhere
• teacher or authority needed.	• no authority required
• focuses on correctness	• focuses on communication

PROMOTING LANGUAGE ACQUISITION IN THE CLASSROOM

The natural approach assigns a particularly limited role to grammar instruction. It holds that errors don't matter much unless they impede communication and that the language acquirer (notice that we use this term, rather than "learner"), like a child, listens for an extended period before speaking, then moves to center stage, taking every opportunity to practice and integrate new material. Control over the structures of the language is gained unconsciously.

According to the natural approach, an environment in which acquirers can communicate meaningfully in the foreign language, combined with carefully chosen classroom reinforcement, is the best combination of all, and can result in the highest levels of proficiency.

FIVE PRINCIPLES OF THE NATURAL APPROACH

- **The goal of language acquisition is communication skills.** Language acquisition is not an end in itself; it is for communicating messages to other people.
- **Comprehension precedes production.** Listening comprehension and reading comprehension should precede the productive skills of speaking or writing in language training. This is the concept of "delayed oral production."
- **Production skills emerge gradually, over time.** By supplying large amounts of comprehensible input that

allows learners to understand language, and giving them many natural settings to experience language, you enable learners to begin to use it at their own pace. Students should never be forced to speak, and errors should be treated with tolerance, when they are corrected at all.

- **Acquisition activities are central to progress.**

Those lively, communicative, free-form activities that so many teachers use to fill a few spare minutes actually do more to assist the language acquisition process than the dull, repetitive, intricate exercises that traditional teachers use for the majority of their class time.

- **A relaxed atmosphere is central to progress in class settings.**

Language acquisition works better when learners are not in a competitive or anxiety-producing situation.

CRITICISMS OF THE NATURAL APPROACH

Not all language teaching experts agree with Krashen's ideas, arguing that the theory overstates the similarities between children and adults in learning a language. Many question how separate the processes of learning and acquisition actually are, for example. Although this distinction is a useful one, some say we should be cautious about assuming that this accurately describes the way the mind actually functions. For example, some researchers note the importance of student output and negotiating meaning as they learn--not just receiving input.

Second, few teachers or students would agree that grammar instruction should have such a minor place in the language class. Indeed, Tracy Terrell, who did the most to popularize the natural approach in the 1980s, later modified his views, noting that explicit grammar instruction might have significant benefits after all.

HOW TO DO IT

GRAMMAR AND THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

Many language teachers spend a large part of their training learning about the grammar of the language they are going to teach. Unfortunately, less time is usually spent showing future teachers how to teach grammar, so it often becomes the weak link in language teaching. We address common questions with regard to the teaching of grammar in hopes of providing useful advice in this area.

WHEN AND WHERE SHOULD GRAMMAR BE TAUGHT?

According to the communicative approach, grammar, like pronunciation, should be taught only as a tool that enables learners to communicate only. It should never form the basis of a curriculum or the main goal ofa lesson plan. Grammar should be taught if one of the goals of the learner is a high degree of accuracy in the target language, whether for academic or other formal purposes.

WHICH GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES SHOULD BE TAUGHT?

Once you have decided when grammar will be used in the classroom, you need to determine which grammatical structures should be included. Grammar information should be:

- **Learnable**--the rule should be easy to describe and remember.
- **Portable**--the rule should be able to be carried in the learner's head without outside reference materials.
- **Useful** --the rule should not have too many exceptions, and it should help learners express and understand meanings in the new language.

Of course, the decision about individual structures will vary from language to language, so it is impossible to generalize about which kinds of structures should or should not be taught. The decision depends upon your sense of the learnability, portability, and usefulness of the grammar you are considering teaching. In grammar-based beginning English classes, for example, much time may be spent teaching and practicing the use of "a/an" and "the." English teachers complain about how few students seem to grasp this fine point. Perhaps instead of regretting the learners'

seeming slowness, the instructor (or curriculum designer) should instead examine why such a complex subject is introduced at the beginning level, especially when it does not make a great difference in communicative competence.

HOW CAN GRAMMAR BE TAUGHT MOST EFFECTIVELY?

One of the questions often asked about teaching grammar is whether it is more effective to introduce it deductively or inductively. As discussed in Part I of this manual, different learners favor different learning styles. Some learners like to see a grammar rule written clearly on the board or in the textbook, with examples following it. Other learners freeze when they see such rules and prefer to have examples and then draw conclusions from them, guided by the instructor.

Neither of these ways of teaching grammar is right or wrong, but one might work better with one group of Trainees or with one particular grammar point than with another. You should weigh the negative effect that deductive grammar teaching can have on motivation (since many learners, especially older ones, are intimidated by complex or complex-looking rules) against the efficiency of presenting a grammar rule instead of allowing the class to "discover" it.

1. USING A DEDUCTIVE APPROACH

If you use a deductive approach, remember:

- The rule should be stated simply enough to be comprehensible and not overwhelming. It should be presented with enough time to "soak in." This point applies especially to classes with older adults.
- The rule should be presented clearly and plainly on the blackboard or on the handout, with grammatical similarities noted clearly in all examples. Good layout will especially help older adults.
- Give sufficient examples, and solicit sufficient examples from the learners, so that there is time to both understand and practice the rule.

2. USING AN INDUCTIVE APPROACH

If you use an inductive approach, remember:

- The examples from which learners are to generalize must be clearly isolated so they know what it is they are supposed to be examining. Usually, the examples should be presented in isolated sentences so they will not get lost in the larger context.
- Examples should be presented in both oral (auditory) and written (visual) form so that the grammar lesson will serve learners favoring either mode. The grammar segment should not be a listening comprehension or reading lesson.
- You need to be sure that once the rule has been discovered by the learners, it is clearly summarized and repeated. In this way, learners will not have an incomplete, or incorrect, understanding of the rule.

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

Beyond the deductive/inductive question, there are a few other suggestions that can be made regarding teaching grammar. For one thing, it is important to note that teaching your Trainees to state grammar terminology or rules is not likely to be successful, nor is it a productive use of class time. We do not need to know the names of parts of speech or how to recite grammar rules in our native language, yet we use the grammar of our native language nearly perfectly. The same kind of mastery can occur in second-language acquisition given sufficient amounts of comprehensible input and adequate opportunities to develop communication skills.

Therefore, when teaching grammar, present a minimum of grammatical terms or grammar rules. Your Trainees don't need to know the names of grammar functions; that will not improve their communicative competence. Rather, they should be shown how the grammar looks in action through the use of many accessible examples.

Another rule of thumb in grammar teaching is to keep the presentation short and lively. Grammar is associated with boredom for most students, and lengthy explanations or practice only heightens that feeling. Try to stagger your grammar point across several lessons plans: the first day, perhaps, for discovery of a grammar rule via several examples; the second for explanation of the rule and some examples of it in action; the third for a chance to apply and practice the rule in more uncontrolled settings; and the fourth for review.

HOW TO DO IT

PRONUNCIATION IN COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

PRONUNCIATION GOALS

The goal of your language program with regard to pronunciation is comprehensibility, not accent-free speech. Therefore, you should not be overly concerned, or allow Trainees to become overly concerned, with removing all traces of their American accents. It is not possible, and it isn't even desirable. What should be a goal is to bring Trainees' pronunciation within the range of comprehensible options for pronouncing words. This is not always as easy as it sounds! You need not spend class time showing Trainees how to categorize phonemes, etc., in the way you may have done during your linguistic training. This is useful and interesting for Trainers, but not for the average learner. Instead, you should introduce, simply, clearly, and over a period of time, the unfamiliar consonants, vowels, intonation patterns, and other features that are in your language but not in English.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

- Practice a sound or sounds in a meaningful context rather than in isolation. If you are teaching a new consonant, for example, it should be introduced in real words or short phrases, rather than just articulated.
- Try not to point out "correct" or "incorrect" pronunciation by members of the class.
- When possible, give Trainees the opportunity to model their speech after several native speakers, not just you. Guest speakers, prerecorded tapes, and out-of-class assignments are some of the ways to do this. In some cultures, males and females have dramatically different vocabulary, idioms, or intonation patterns. Make sure that Trainees hear language patterns of members of their sex. Do the same if there are significant differences in the way language is used by different age groups or regional groups.
- As with grammar practice, keep the session very short and stagger the information over time, including review. Most pronunciation units should not take more than five minutes of class time on any one day.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

BACKGROUND

James J. Asher, another researcher who focused on the personality of the learner, introduced a radical new idea to language teaching in the 1960s: Let learners listen to the language for an extended period of time before they begin speaking. This concept, and the entire "total physical response" (TPR) method, has been adopted in a number of language-learning programs with good results.

Asher believes that very sophisticated comprehension can take place before any words are spoken by the language learner. This comprehension can be verified through the learner's physical responses to spoken commands.

DESCRIPTION

The most distinctive concepts of TPR are what is termed an "operation" and the three stages of language development. An operation is a procedure for performing a competency. The competency may be simple, like making a cup of coffee, or complex, like filling out a government order form. You can choose operations that are tailored to a list of competencies for your training program.

In the first stage of language development, TPR has a "silent period" during which only the instructor speaks. Learners participate when the instructor demonstrates and says the steps in an operation and then gives commands to the learners, who respond by silently carrying them out. The silent period lasts for 10 to 20 hours of instructional time, during which the instructor may present several different operations. In the second stage, learners begin to give commands to the instructor when they feel ready. Then, after a few more hours of instructional time, again at the point when they feel ready, learners reach the third stage, in which they give the commands to each other.

STAGES OF PROGRESS IN TPR

1. **Instructor demonstrates commands and commands learners.**
2. **Learners command instructor.**
3. **Learners command learners.**

Even after a group has completed the hours necessary to reach the third stage, the instructor continues to lead the learners through the three stages for each new operation by giving a demonstration and allowing learners to act it out silently, as a "warm-up" exercise.
Gradually, writing skills are introduced, including standard grammar, while keeping the focus on listening.

ADVANTAGES

- Comprehension precedes production. Learners demonstrate their comprehension by accurately carrying out the commands.
- Activities are designed to be practical and are based on a variety of everyday activities.
- The varied physical tasks create interest and involvement.
- Looking at and listening to verbal cues, combined with movement, are challenging for learners. Often learners "subvocalize" (speak inaudibly) while listening and moving, challenging themselves to remember and pronounce the language items.
- TPR is well suited to a competency-based curriculum if the instructor chooses appropriate content.
- Not requiring learners to speak in the first stage reduces anxiety.
- A spirit of fun created by so much physical activity makes learners less worried about taking risks.
- Successful participation without speaking increases the learner's selfconfidence. Learners speak only when self-confident enough to do so.
- Tolerance for ambiguity is neither increased nor diminished. However, the experience of listening and understanding without formally anaylzing a message can contribute indirectly to tolerance for ambiguity.
- TPR usually creates a relaxed environment, though a few learners might feel anxious at times if others can say or perform the commands before they can.
- Communication is more important than correctness when learners begin to speak, if their speech is accurate enough for others to be able to carry out their commands.
- Using only the imperative form fosters peer interaction, especially at lower skill levels. At more advanced levels, when Trainees also want to communicate using questions and comments, commands must be specially written to include these language forms.
- Learners perform operations with the language; they do not learn about the language.
- The language used is authentic, and if tasks are well chosen, vocabulary will contain commonly used words.
- There is a lot of potential for creative activities, mostly on a listening/speaking level.

APPEAL

TPR appeals to learners who like to get an intuitive feel for a language and enjoy a high level of social interaction. The method depends on listening skills, so emphasizes the auditory, rather than the visual, mode. TPR is further identified with a third learning mode, movement, which has additional benefits. TPR is strongly recommended when learners are anxious and doubt their ability to succeed.

OLDER LEARNERS

This method is very good for involving and relaxing older learners. The emphasis on task performance and the ability to put verbal knowledge to use right away are likely to make the older learner feel at ease. The concept that each learner decides when she is ready to speak is particularly appropriate. The older learner who is more reticent can still participate by acting out other learners' commands even if she is not yet at the speaking stage.

This method works less to the older learner's disadvantage than most of the other methods described here and is thus a good method to incorporate in planning your activities, especially in the beginning weeks of your preservice program.

ADAPTATION

TPR is very suitable for use with a communicative approach, especially in the early days of class. Its main disadvantage may be that your Trainees need to start speaking the new language right away, and classical TPR may require more time than your program can afford. However, a short period of TPR--even just several hours--can be an excellent way to orient Trainees to simple vocabulary and functions. Moreover, shorter operations can be used to progress more quickly to the stage of speaking skills. Many Peace Corps language programs use TPR as a teaching technique (rather than a method). A TPR activity may be used to introduce a new comptenecy, for example.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

BACKGROUND

World War II created a great and immediate need for fluent speakers of foreign languages in the U.S. Armed Forces. The Army developed a drill system of instruction to meet this need. Schools employed this method as part of a nationwide effort to train students in foreign languages for national defense, and the government spent enormous amounts of money on training. As a result, the "audio-lingual method" (ALM) is the best-known method from the United States. ALM lessons were standardized across the country, so all learners were exposed to the same dialogues on prerecorded tapes. (In fact, hundreds of thousands of Americans can still probably recite a fragment or two of their ALM dialogues verbatim.)

This method was influenced by "behaviorism," a movement in psychology and education that describes learning as a set of habits that can be manipulated scientifically by the stimuli to which the learner is exposed. This idea extends to language, which is thought to be a set of speech habits with no inherent shape. Behaviorists believed that the learner can build up these habits through exercises. Thus, a drill is seen as a way of reinforcing a language habit and thereby--by learner induction--teaching the meaning and use of the language. It is easy to learn how to teach using this method, so ALM may still be the dominant language training methodology used in foreign language teaching in the United States today. Unfortunately, it is not a very effective one. We know more about how people learn language than we did 50 years ago. We now understand that language learning is a more complex, creative, and emotional process than just learning new habits.

DESCRIPTION

ALM course material consists of 20-to-40-line dialogues that increase in grammatical and lexical difficulty. They are written to correspond to the age and interest level of the learner. Each dialogue has accompanying drills and other

activities that provide practice of the material contained in the dialogues.

An ALM lesson begins with an oral presentation of the dialogue. The vocabulary contained in the dialogue is generally limited so that the learners' attention is not distracted from the structures to be learned. The instructor (or an audiotape) orally presents the dialogue, after which it is broken into shorter, more manageable phrases that the group, and then individuals, repeat. The focus is on accurate reproduction of the dialogue; therefore, during drilling or individual dialogue work, the instructor stops frequently to correct errors.

A series of drills consisting of three major types--repetition, substitution, and transformation--follows the dialogue. The drills are executed in various ways-chorally, individually, in "chains" around the room, etc. Supplementary vocabulary is sometimes introduced during drilling.

The instructor serves as a model of the target language, a director of drills, and a constant corrector of errors. In short, the instructor's responsibility is to create good habits on the learners' part. The learners strive for error-free reproduction of the target language through memorization of the set of dialogues. (It is for this reason that writings on ALM often mention the goal of "mim-mem," or mimicry and memorization.) Learners are encouraged not to deviate from the drills and dialogues presented, for deviation could result in errors. The native language of the learner is never used in the classroom.

In many ALM classrooms, use of a language laboratory to drill pronunciation is an important component of instruction. The instructor often listens in on student performance through headphones, correcting pronunciation individually.

DRAWBACKS

- This method downplays communication and encourages correctness, just the opposite of the goal of communicative competence.
- Learners are frequently drilled on phrases they do not comprehend.
- Originally, ALM courses were not designed to help the learner use the foreign language outside of class, so materials were not designed to be practical and relevant.
- Drills can be exhausting and boring. Many learners, especially older ones, go through the motions of a drill without retaining any of the material.

• Although perfecting drills and dialogues may be challenging for some students, the challenge is over once they are memorized; also, memorizing them does not benefit communicative competence, which lowers incentive.
• Dialogues are usually so standardized that they cannot be applied to situations other than the ones they depict.
• Mimicry and memorization of dialogues and the need to execute drills correctly produce anxiety and pressure.
• Learners do not become confident when they are not sure what they are saying, or when they cannot function outside of the fixed dialogue. Learning a language routine well can be a source of pride, but this accomplishment does not necessarily build internal confidence. Only a learner who can use a wide range of language in various situations experiences this self-confidence.
• Learners with low tolerance for ambiguity will appreciate fixed drills. Even learners who do not appreciate them can benefit from drills because, combined with integrative activities, they provide patterns learners can use in creating original sentences. For drills to be effective, though, their extremely negative effects must be eliminated or minimized. Drilling in fixed patterns does not encourage tolerance for ambiguity.
• ALM techniques do not produce a relaxed classroom.

OLDER LEARNERS

ALM seems to have a poor track record with American high school students despite their strong short-term memories and willingness to work with material not related directly to their lives; it is surely even less suited to older learners, with their weaker short-term memories and greater need for useful and relevant input. Besides that, ALM's emphasis on imitating to produce nativelike pronunciation further disfavors the older learner, who is less likely to reach such a level.

ALM makes most learners more anxious because the learner must perform immediately and constantly. Hours of practice and study using ALM does not result inwith any practical speaking skills, and this too is discouraging to older learners, who want to put their new knowledge into use. The fact that sentences can be recited without regard for when and where they may be practical to say makes retention less likely, too.

Finally, the oral emphasis, and lack of written grammar explanations, can create a stressful environment for the older learner, who tends to be stronger in the visual mode and who benefits from note taking and visual reinforcements.

ADAPTATION

To be useful for your purposes, ALM would need to undergo so many changes that it would scarcely be recognizable. It runs fundamentally against the idea that the purpose of language is communication (content), not correctness (form).

One kind of situation in which ALM techniques might prove handy would be in teaching "gambits," or phrases for conversation management, since to be effective, they need to be learned precisely, including intonation, etc.
A dialogue can have many uses, but memorizing and drilling it are among the least recommended ones. It can expose learners to common expressions and give them practice in saying them. It can introduce idioms and slang that are unlikely to be found in traditional language textbooks, and give good pronunciation practice. Dialogues can be memorized if they are very short, ritualistic exchanges that seldom vary in the order they are spoken.

ALM-style dialogues can be helpful in promoting listening comprehension if a cassette player is available, if the dialogues are short and well recorded, and if they contain examples of natural interactions between native speakers.

OVER VIEW

MANAGING THE CLASSROOM

Classroom management consists of techniques instructors use to work with learners. You might call it your "teaching style." It includes ways of handling the flow of activities in the classroom both related and unrelated to the lesson content you are presenting. This section gives some tips about language-related classroom teaching and general classroom techniques, both viewed in the light of the competency-based curriculum and the communicative approach.

FOREIGN-LANGUAGE-RELATED TECHNIQUES

Foreign Language-Related Classroom Techniques are techniques that are specifically related to the teaching of a foreign language and are based on language-learning research. These techniques are consistent with a communicative approach and with the competency-based curriculum. In providing some tips on how to apply principles of the communicative approach in some areas of traditional language teaching, we include the following:

- Error correction
- Grammar
- Pronunciation

All three of these aspects of foreign-language teaching play important roles in a traditional language-learning curriculum and much-reduced roles in the communicative approach and the competency-based curriculum.

GENERAL TECHNIQUES

General Classroom Techniques are techniques that apply to any kind of classroom situation, not to any one subject, and that can help you avoid certain common problems. We relate these techniques to the Peace Corps training context and address the specific issues of older learners.

The art of good teaching, of course, has a virtually inexhaustible list of general classroom techniques, and any trainer could probably write a good manual giving her own teaching "secrets." We include only a few common areas of concern here:

- How to manage learner-centered activities
- How to intervene in learner centered activities
- Error correction
- How to have a discussion
- How to conclude a class session

HOW TO DO IT

HOW TO MANAGE LEARNER-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

TEACHER ROLE IN LEARNER-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

The trainer who is accustomed to energetically directing each lesson activity may feel uncomfortable using the communicative approach's less controlled, learner centered techniques. The activity might be a game, a group problem-solving effort, or a creative project. Less controlled, or "open-ended," activities are not uncontrolled; although the way the class members work their way toward the goal may be uncontrolled at some points along the way, the goal of the activity (the competence or language skill) is kept under control. You may feel nervous when members of the class are talking all at once, moving around rapidly, or laughing or shouting loudly. In a traditional classroom, such behavior is frowned upon. But in a class whose goal is communicative competence, all of these expressions indicate that learners are relaxed, confident, and working hard to use the new language. Another point to bear in mind about less controlled activities is that they do not leave you with nothing to do. Rather, you act as an involved "facilitator," keeping the activity moving, involving all the learners, and noting learner progress.

A trainer who uses learner-centered techniques successfully will develop a high degree of sensitivity to the group and to its progress in taking charge of the learning process. When the skilled trainer perceives that the group is having difficulty, s/he has the discipline not to step in and take over the exercise but first to encourage the learners. The following four-step process enables struggling learners to continue learning with the maximum degree of independence.

HOW TO DO IT

HOW TO INTERVENE IN LEARNER-CENTERED ACTIVITIES

Keeping control while letting Trainees take the initiative requires highly sophisticated leadership on the trainer's part. You must be closely enough involved with the process of the exercise to know when to intervene and when to keep silent. It also requires discipline to follow the four-step order in making interventions, keeping in mind that the goal is to promote independent learning and to allow the Trainees to use their own strategies and styles to achieve communicative competence.

WHEN A LESS CONTROLLED EXERCISE FALTERS

No trainer involvement:
- Allow to work alone.

Little trainer involvement:
- trainer notes errors for future review.

More trainer involvement:
- Encourage only
- Offer additional data
- Suggest a procedure
- Give a hint

THE FOUR STAGES OF INTERVENTION

- When the group appears to be having difficulty, the trainer first encourages them, expressing confidence in their ability.
- If that is not enough to get the group working again, the trainer provides additional information, including new vocabulary when needed.
- If the group still does not function smoothly, the trainer makes a procedural suggestion. For example, if the group cannot come to a consensus on the logical order of a series of pictures, the trainer might say, "See if you can agree on which photo is last in the order. Come back to the first later." Or the trainer might ask, "Has everyone shared an opinion yet? Have you forgotten to get someone's ideas?"
- As a last resort, the trainer can give a hint to the solution: "Take a look at the last sentence to find the mistake." "If I tell you that Item A matches with Figure 6, does that make any of the others fall into place?"

HOW TO DO IT

ERROR CORRECTION

ERROR CORRECTION AND COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

The communicative approach in general discourages error correction of the kind usually found in traditional language-learning classrooms: for example, when the instructor stops the learner in midsentence to correct the learner's speech, or covers student writing with corrections in red pencil. There are several reasons for this position:

- If communicative competence is the goal of second-language acquisition, the message--or comprehensible input and output--is what is important, not the form the message takes (with errors or error free). Therefore, most error correction does not contribute to the goal of communicative competence.
- Error correction can have a negative, and sometimes devastating, effect on learners, especially in the sensitive domain of language learning. This effect is even worse with older learners, who are likely to have more anxiety and lower self-confidence than younger learners.
- Error correction has not shown impressive results in language-learning research and may thus be a waste of class time.

WHEN TO CORRECT ERRORS

For these reasons, we recommend using error correction in very limited circumstances. They would include the following:

- When the focus is on form, not content. Error correction, like grammar and pronunciation teaching should be the focus only in situations in which communicative competence is not the immediate goal of the lesson. Such situations would include revising writing, doing manipulative grammar exercises, or doing other nonevaluative activities.
- During communication activities, error correction should be avoided except when the message cannot be understood. In that case, there are several ways to communicatively clarify or correct incomplete or inaccurate output.
- If a learner consistently makes a cultural error (verbal or otherwise) that has a strong stigma for native speakers, the error should be pointed out and alternatives presented. As we discussed earlier, communicative competence is a measure not

merely of linguistic correctness but of cultural appropriateness and sensitivity. For example, certain sounds, such as nose blowing, may be considered unimportant in one culture and highly impolite in another. Certain phrases, too, can be easily misunderstood when translated to the new language and cause embarrassment or hurt.

WAYS TO CLARIFY AND CORRECT

Good techniques of error correction give learners the opportunity to self-correct. Self-correction makes it more likely that the learner's comprehension will improve and is also consistent with a learner-centered approach. Such techniques are similar to the communication devices used between native speakers to allow for self-correction of mistakes. Here are three of them:

1. INDICATE LACK OF COMPREHENSION POLITELY

This is probably the technique that comes closest to the normal language acquisition process. You can indicate that a native speaker such as yourself finds the message confusing. Offer a polite "Pardon?" or "I'm sorry, I didn't understand. Could you repeat?" That signals to the speaker that something--whether pronunciation, structure, or choice of word--is wrong. This is also an opportunity to answer a learner's questions about the error she has just made. Here it is best to let the learner take the initiative.

2. REPEAT ERRONEOUS SENTENCE IN CORRECTED FORM

Repeat the speaker's sentence in corrected form, to confirm that the message was properly understood. For example, if the Trainee says, "My cousin of host family is visiting this week," you might say, "Oh--your host family's cousin is visiting this week." If a Trainee says, "My electricity go out last night," you could say, "You say your electricity went out last night?"

3. GIVE SPEAKER ALTERNATIVES FOR EXPRESSING MEANING

If a message is confusing, give the speaker correct alternatives to choose from. For example, after a confusing sentence, you could ask a learner, "Did you mean his sister gave the party or his sister attended the party?" This method of correcting while clarifying can be used between learners as well as between trainer and Trainees.

HOW TO DO IT

HOW TO HAVE A DISCUSSION

WHAT IS A DISCUSSION

Lesson plans, especially at the intermediate and advanced levels, often call for discussion in the target language. We define a discussion as a voluntary exchange of comments and questions among class members. The word "discussion" does not mean a rambling conversation with no particular topic. Rather, learners start by hearing a presentation or having an experience related to one or more competencies identified in the needs assessment. The lesson plan calls on the Trainees to discuss this topic or competency. For example, discussion topics might include:

- understanding and responding to negative feedback from community members,
- preparing to approach government officials for funds, or
- examining male-female relationships in the new environment.

THE PURPOSE OF DISCUSSION IN THE CLASSROOM

The main purpose of a discussion in language training is to promote communicative competence. Discussions can lower the affective filter and create lively peer interactions on many topics.

STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING DISCUSSION ACTIVITIES

Sometimes, however, it can be difficult to get learners to participate in discussions. These are some simple ways to increase the likelihood of having a successful classroom discussion on a competency-related topic:

- Step aside and let the group take over. Do not try to lead the discussion. Merely act as a facilitator, to keep things moving and distribute time fairly among class members. Sit down.
- Try not to ask questions to which you already know the answer. If you ask an obvious "fact" question, there is nothing to discuss. Instead, ask for feelings, opinions, attitudes, and preferences, questions that start with "How" or "Why." The best kind of question is one that provokes curiosity and interest, especially about an experience that Trainees may have overlooked or been puzzled by. Some examples: "Did you notice that the visitor took a long time to get to the point, to reveal the purpose of the visit? Why do you think he did that?"

"Why do you suppose the second Volunteer was more successful than the first in getting the official to cooperate?"

"What did the woman in the story want to get across by leaving when she did?"

Discussions will be most successful when learners must create their own interpretations.

• Let Trainees know that you expect them to volunteer their comments. Try not to call on people, or they may become passive and the exercise will turn into a series of mini-dialogues between you and the Trainees instead of a conversation among all of the participants.

• Let the group know before they hear a presentation or have an experience that they are going to discuss it afterward. That is the simplest way to increase participation in a discussion, because learners know they will be expected to talk afterward. If they can anticipate what is expected of them, they will listen and think more attentively.

• The learners should do most of the talking, to avoid having the discussion turn into a question-and-answer session with you. The discussion format is not meant for prolonged explanations by the trainer. If you are asked questions, answer them briefly and then turn questions back to the learners.

• Finally, choose a seating arrangement that is conducive to discussion. The drawings that follow show various possible arrangements of trainer (X) and Trainees (0).

Seating Arrangements Nos. 1 And 2: Learner-Centered
Seating Arrangement No. 3: trainer-Centered
Learners cannot see each other without straining, so all comments will tend to be directed at trainer.

No. 1

```
    0      x      0
    0             0
      0           0
        0         0
          0   0
```

No. 2

```
  0 x 0
```

No. 3

```
        x
  0 0000000
```

Although seating arrangement No. 3 tends to be the most common in classrooms, No. 1 and No. 2 are much more conducive to a discussion environment. If your room has movable chairs, take advantage of the flexibility by making seating arrangements that reflect your goals. Keep chairs close enough to allow optimal visibility and audibility but not to make Trainees ill at ease.

HOW TO DO IT

HOW TO CONCLUDE A CLASS SESSION

KEEPING TRACK OF TIME

It is easy to fall into the trap of filling in the last half-hour of a session with exercises and stopping when the clock says the time is up. A lesson in which teacher-directed practice grinds on until the end is often the result of too little planning or keeping poor track of time. If this habit goes unchecked, it can create attitude and learning problems.

Running out of time, the opposite problem, can also result in an unsatisfying conclusion to a lesson and interrupted exposure to new language forms, which hinders older adults in particular. In general, you should try to spend the amount of time you planned for each exercise, unless doing so would seriously impair the lesson.

If you keep notes in your lesson plan outline about the times required for each activity, you can make better time estimates with each successive training cycle.

PURPOSES OF A CONCLUDING SECTION

Each lesson plan should have a concluding section. The conclusion should show the learners how far they have come since the session began.

- A final recap of the lesson can give learners a sense of accomplishment by allowing them to demonstrate a degree of mastery over a new set of language skills.

- In a competency-based curriculum, the ideal review is often to let the Trainees role-play the entire competency covered in the lesson.
- The last five or ten minutes can be used to build team spirit, encouraging Trainees to congratulate one another on their achievement during the session.

Plan a good concluding activity for the lesson and make sure you save time for it.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

GENERAL LANGUAGE LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The following compilation of activities has been adapted from the *Peace Corps Language Training Curriculum* . They can be used with many of the competencies listed there.

DIALOGUES

ORAL DIALOGUES

Purpose: To improve students' speaking and listening skills. To familiarize students with natural utterances and conversational exchanges related to the competencies.
Directions: -Introduce the characters (usually two) in the dialogue using stick-figure drawings, pictures, or puppets. You can indicate when a different person is speaking by changing your voice slightly, by stepping to the left or right, by pointing to two pictures of people on the board, by using two different hats that you change quickly.
-Act out the dialogue several times, taking both parts and presenting the general meaning, and the pronunciation, rhythm, stress, intonation of the utterances. Visuals can be used to dramatize the dialogue.
-Have students repeat each line of the dialogue several times.
-Take one of the parts. Have the whole class take the other part.
-After practicing the dialogue several times, reverse the roles.
-Have one half of the class take part A and the other half part B.
-Reverse roles.
-Have students practice the dialogue in pairs. Circulate and monitor the students' performance.
Note: Two-line dialogues are appropriate for beginners. As students progress in their use of the language, a 6-8 line dialogue will be appropriate.

RITUAL

Purpose: To have students memorize set phrases that are frequently used in everyday conversation. A ritual is a short form of a dialogue. An example is:
A: Hello, how are you? B: Fine, thanks. And you?
Directions: (see Dialogue)

LINE-GRAM DIALOGUES

Purpose: To introduce or practice a dialogue
Directions: Draw a line gram on the board representing the lines of a dialogue. Each word is represented by a line; all punctuation is included.
Example: What's your last name?
My last name is Smith.
The preceding becomes:

_____ _____ _____ _____ ?

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Model the dialogue (following the steps in Oral Dialogues above)
-To help students with rhythm, stress and intonation, use a pointer to tap out the lines while modeling them.
-As students master the first pair of lines, add more lines and tap them out.
-Have students clap or tap out the lines.

CUMMINGS DEVICE

Purpose: To have students practice useful, high-frequency sentences to ask for and receive simple information.
Directions: -Write a short conversational exchange on the blackboard.
Example:
How many __1___ do you have?1. brothers, sisters, children
I have __2___ ___1_____ 2. 1,2,3,4,5, etc.
-Present the conversation to be sure students understand the meaning.
-Go through the list of words to make sure students understand.
-Have students repeat the lines after you.
-Have students respond. You take one part; students the other.
-Have students practice the conversation with each other. Students choose which words they want to slot into the blanks.
(note: schedules, charts, maps and other sources of information are useful for a Cummings Device.)
Note: This is similar to a dialogue, but it is usually shorter and has holes where a variety of words can be added.

CONSTRUCTALOG

Purpose: Students make their own dialogues from a list of words and expressions.
Directions: -Put a few key words (or pictures) on the board.
-Ask the students to work in pairs to create their dialogues based on these cues.
-Have students present these dialogues to the class.

DIALOGUE GRIDS

Directions: -Use pictures to cue lines of a dialogue.

DRILLS AND CONTROLLED RESPONSE ACTIVITIES

GENERAL PURPOSE OF ALL DRILL ACTIVITIES	To present/practice language in a controlled situation.
REPETITION DRILLS	-Model an utterance. -Have students repeat first in a large group, then in smaller groups and finally individually. Pictures can be used to reinforce the utterances.
SUBSTITUTION DRILLS	-Model the first utterance while the students repeat. -Give a substitute item as a cue. This is done by showing a picture or saying the word. -Students say the utterance substituting the new word in the previously modeled sentence.
REJOINDER DRILL	-Say the first line of a 2-line exchange. -Cue the appropriate rejoinder by a word or phrase given orally, written on a card or shown in a picture. -The student then supplies the second line.
EXPANSION DRILL	-Give a basic sentence. -Tell students to add a new element to the sentence (for example: an adjective, a time phrase).
TRANS-FORMATION DRILL	-Give a sentence orally. -Tell students to change it in a certain way (for example: present to past tense; singular to plural).
CHART PATTERN PRACTICE	-Show a chart containing a series of pictures (for example: daily activities). -Use the pictures to cue sentence patterns.
CHAIN DRILL	-Have students sit in a circle. Model the drill. -Begin the chain by asking one student a question. For example: "What's your name?" -The student answers and then asks another student the same question. -The chain continues until all the students have asked and answered the question.
DOUBLE CIRCLE	-Move the chairs to form two circles--one inside the other. Students in the inner circle sit facing those in the outer circle. -Present a question (for example, "What's your name?"). -The pairs of students facing each other in the two circles take turns asking and answering the question. - After the answers, the students in the outer circle move one chair to the right.

-Ask another question. The new pairs then ask and answer both questions. -Continue moving chairs and presenting questions until students have had sufficient practice.

MEMORY DRILL

-Choose a topic area (for example, food, clothing,).
-The teacher or student begins by saying, "I'm going to (capital city), and I'm going to take a _____."
-The second student repeats what S1 said and adds an item.
-The next student repeats what S1 and S2 have said and adds a third item, etc.

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

Purpose: To teach language through a series of commands.
Directions:: -Model a series of commands stating the sentence as you perform the action, For example, "Go to the door." as you walk to the door.
-Invite 3-6 students to walk through the commands with you.
-Give the commands to the students without doing the action with them.
-Model the commands; all students repeat.
-Students, as a class or individually, give the commands to the teacher to perform or to each other.
-Pair students and have them practice giving commands to each other.

ACTION SEQUENCE

Purpose: Students perform and then describe a series of actions that are associated with a topic area, e.g. buying food in a market.
Directions: -Demonstrate the sequence while the students listen and observe.
-Go through the sequence again, stopping to explain new words. Students listen and observe.
-Go through the sequence again while students respond to the commands with the appropriate actions. Students do not speak.
-Teach the commands. Students repeat the sentences several times for practice.
-One student gives the commands while a second student responds with the actions.

RECITATION

Purpose: To provide students with phrases useful for explaining or describing themselves to a native speaker.
Directions: Students memorize a short series of sentences. Although these sentences would not all be recited at once, they can each be used in real conversation in response to questions. Example:
My name is _____.
I'm from (country)
I speak (language)
I'm (age).
I'm single.
-Present the recitation using information about yourself.
-Make sure students understand the meaning of each sentence.

-Go through the recitation sentence by sentence. Help each students with the information they need.
-Have students memorize their recitation.
-Students practice in pairs.
-Individual students present their recitations to class.

MONOLOGUE

Purpose: To present a short monologue to serve as basis for listening practice
To introduce new vocabulary, grammatical structures
Note: Choose a topic that will be useful to students in interacting with the host community. Possible areas are: family, food, a U.S. holiday, a game or sport, a movie or book plot.
Directions: -Plan your monologue.
-Give the monologue (30 seconds is a good length). Have students listen.
-Repeat the monologue.
-Allow the students to ask questions about the material. Write key words on the board or use visuals to make the meaning clear.
-Say the monologue again.
-Ask students questions about your monologue.
-Ask students (individually or as a large group) to give your monologue as accurately as they can.
Variation: Students can give their own monologue based on the same topic as yours.

GAMES

GENERAL PURPOSE OF ALL GAMES

To practice language in pairs/small groups using an enjoyable activity.

SPINNER CARDS

-Put pictures of new vocabulary related to a competency on a spinner card.
-Students take turns spinning the arrow on the spinner card and asking an appropriate question to another student. The student answers based on the picture cue.

QUESTIONS

-The teacher or a student thinks of an object (related to a competency area) or the teacher shows a student a picture or a card with a vocabulary word written on it.
-Students try to guess the object by asking yes/no questions.

ACTION GUESSING GAME

-The teacher gives each student a card with an action written on it or the students in teams can decide on which to present.
-A student mimes the action and the other students (or the other team) tries to guess what it is.

TIC TAC TOE

-Give each student a Tic Tac Toe grid with 9 boxes. and tokens.
-Write (or have students write) words from the topic area being studied in each box.
-Divide students into pairs.
-One student has "X"s and the other has O's.
-Students take turns reading a word or using it in a sentence.
-If the student uses the word correctly, s/he puts an X/O in the box he chooses on the grid.
-The first student to get three X's or three O's in a row (diagonal, horizontal or vertical) wins.

BINGO

-Make bingo cards (or have students make their own cards) using words from the current topic area, pictures, numbers, etc.
-Give each student a bingo card and tokens.
-Call out (or have a student call out) one of the words/numbers on the bingo card.
-If a student has that word, s/he covers it up with a token.
-The first student to cover up five in a row wins.

GO FISH

A card game. Prepare sets of duplicate cards with pictures of objects (related to a competency).
-Deal 5 cards to each student.
-Put the rest of the cards face down in the middle.
-In groups, students ask each other for cards to make pairs. (For example, Do you have an apple?" Yes, I do." No, I don't. Go Fish."
The student who has to "go fish" draws a card from the pile.
-The first student to get a pair for each card in his hand, wins.

CONCENTRATION

Purpose: Students compete to match pairs of index cards by remembering their location. Pairs can include picture/word; synonyms/antonyms; grammar contrasts.
Directions:-Make sets of cards using pictures or vocabulary from a competency.
-Put the cards face down in columns and rows.
-Taking turns, students turn over two cards.
-If they don't match, students turn them back over.
-When a match is made, students read the words or use them in a sentence.
-They then remove the cards and take another turn.
-The student with the most pairs wins.

MAGIC CUBES

Purpose: To practice new vocabulary.
To practice asking and answering questions in small groups.
Directions: -Make cubes (6 sides) out of heavy cardboard.
-Put pictures of new vocabulary related to a competency on each side of the cube.
-A student throws the cube, identifies the picture and uses the new word appropriately.
Variation: Students can work in pairs and ask each other questions. The answer depends on the information on the side where the cube lands when thrown.

MEMORY TABLE

-Bring 5-10 objects (related to a topic area) and put them on a table.
-Cover the objects with a cloth.
-Remove the cloth for about 30 seconds and allow students to study the items.
-Then cover them again with the cloth.
-Have the students work alone or in groups to record what they saw.
-Compare and check lists.

RUN AND TOUCH

-Attach pictures (related to the topic area) to the board.
- Divide the class into two teams and have them line up in front of the board. -Call out the first new word.
-The first member of each team runs to the board, pointing to the picture representing the word that the teacher calls. The first student to touch the correct picture gets a point for his team.
-The first student then goes to the end of the line and the game continues until all members have had a chance to play. The team with the most points wins.

SIMON SAYS

Purpose: to practice following commands
Directions: -The teacher gives a command. Sometimes it is preceded by "Simon Says" sometimes it is given without saying "Simon Says".
-Students follow the command only if the teacher says, "Simon Says."
-A student who makes a mistake loses one point. The student who has lost the fewest points at the end of the game is the winner.
-A variation is to substitute "Would you please" for "Simon Says" to help students learn to use polite requests.

GAME BOARDS

Purpose: to practice vocabulary or grammatical structures by playing a game.
Directions: -Make a simple game board with a START, a FINISH and spaces connecting the two.
-Write in each space a vocabulary word from the topic being studied or a grammatical item related to the topic.
-Divide students into teams.
-Students take turns throwing the dice, moving the number of spaces shown on the dice and reading or following the instructions on the space where they land.
-A student who makes a mistake must go back to the space where he was before he threw the dice.
-The winner reaches FINISH first.

SCRAMBLES

-Write the words of a sentence that has been practiced in class on 3x5 cards. -Scramble the cards.
-Have students in pairs or small groups arrange the words to form a sentence.

ACTIVITIES THAT USE VISUALS

TOWN MAP

-Make (or have students make) a large map of a town (or of your town). Use it as a base for locating places in all the units.
-Have students describe how to get from one place to another using the map.

PICTURE FILE

-Put together a picture file of magazine pictures, teacher made pictures, student made pictures to use for teaching different topic areas.
-Use these pictures to teach vocabulary, to use as a base for creating stories, for cultural discussion.

PICTURE CUES

-Use pictures to cue a change in tense or person. Hang the cards on the wall.
-Point to them when students need correction or instruction.

PICTURE STORY

-Present a 6-10 frame picture story related to a topic area. Students "read" the story and tell what the characters do and say.

LOOK AGAIN PICTURES

-Find two similar pictures, draw two similar pictures or change a picture to make it slightly different from its original.
-Give students the two pictures.
-Ask students to find the differences and explain them to the class.

WALL CHARTS

Purpose: To record frequently used phrases.
Notes: Common lists might include: Clarification questions; idioms; frequently used questions to ask for information
Directions:-Post large pieces of paper in the classroom.
-Keep an on-going list of common phrases.
-Point to phrases to cue students

WALL PICTURES

Purpose: to give the students the opportunity to see lots of target language print.
-to expose the students to commonly seen environmental print, for example: traffic signs, building names, words on/in buildings.
Directions:-Label items in the classroom and leave the labels up even if you are not explicitly referring to them in your lesson. Students will constantly see the labels and begin to recognize common words.
-Put up signs in the classroom related to a topic area. For example: post the names of places in a city in the Transportation Unit. Have students use these signs for direction giving: Go to the bank. Turn left at the school., etc.
Variation: -Have students walk around town and write down language they see on signs.
-Bring the words back to the classroom and discuss.

CUISENAIRE RODS

Purpose: To focus students' attention on a specific structure or to stimulate classroom conversation.
Note: Cuisenaire rods were used originally in math.
Directions:-Rods can represent structural concepts or they can be used to represent vocabulary items. Some uses of rods for teaching vocabulary include building a town with rods; presenting a family tree with rods; placing rods in a house to represent furniture.

SIMULATIONS AND COMMUNITY CONTACT ASSIGNMENTS

ROLE PLAY

Purpose: To practice speaking and listening skills by creating real-life situations in the classroom.
Directions: Students should first have practiced the language they are going to use.
Students can use dialogues previously learned or they can write their own dialogues based on previously practiced language.

-Divide students into pairs or small groups.
-Give each student a part to play, a role. This part can be described verbally or written on a *task card* or it can be cued by pictures.
-Each group or pair has a few minutes to practice before performing before the class.
-Circulate and help students while the groups are preparing.
-After each group has performed, give feedback or ask other students for feedback.

COCKTAIL PARTY

Purpose: to practice the language in an informal situation
Directions: -Develop a set of identities, one for each student in the class. All the identities have some connection with each other. For example: everyone is a member of the same family; everyone is a suspect in a murder mystery.
-Give each student a card with an identify on it.
-Tell students they are at a cocktail party with a lot of people. Their job is to find out who the people are and what their relationship is to them.
-Have students memorize their identify.
-Students walk around the room and talk to as many people as possible and find the connections.
-After students finish their conversations, have them tell you the connections.

INTERVIEWS

Purpose: to provide an experience where students interact with native speakers and practice listening, speaking and perhaps note-taking skills.
Directions:-Assign students a topic (or let students help select the topic).
-Brainstorm with the students a list of vocabulary, possible questions needed for the interview.
-Have students work in pairs to develop questions they may need for the interview.
-Review with the students clarification techniques that they may want to use.

-Have students practice the interview questions in a role play situation.
-Students conduct the interview.
-When students return to the classroom, have them give brief reports on what happened, for example: how did they feel? were there any surprises?
-Have students report what they learned from the person they interviewed.
-Make a list of tricks the students learned, e.g., how to ask for clarification, how to control the questioning, how to get the conversation back on track.

FIELD TRIPS

Purpose: Going outside the classroom allows students to use the language in a real situation with native speakers.
Note: Make sure to choose field trips that will be appropriate in your culture. If necessary, arrange with businesses or people before the students take the field trip. Be sure to talk with the students before the trip about what actions will and will not be culturally appropriate.
Directions:-Give students assignments related to a topic area.
-Have students go out and complete the assignments
-When students return to the classroom, talk about what happened and what they learned (see Interview above).

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

LISTENING ACTIVITIES

The following compilation of activities has been adapted from the *Peace Corps Language Training Curriculum.*

GUIDELINES FOR LISTENING ACTIVITIES

Purpose: To prepare students for real-life listening.
The level of language that students can understand is at a much more advanced level than what they can speak. Therefore, listening activities can include vocabulary and structures beyond students' spoken ability. Listening activities should be developed based on the characteristics of Real-Life Listening:

- We listen for a purpose and with certain expectations.
- We make an immediate response to what we hear. (although the response may be non-verbal).
- We usually see the person we are listening to. Therefore, non-verbal gestures are an aid in comprehension.
- There are some visual or environmental clues as to the meaning of what is heard.
- Stretches of heard discourse come in short chunks.
- Most heard discourse is spontaneous and therefore differs from formal spoken prose in the amount of redundancy, 'noise', and colloquialisms, and in its auditory character.

TYPES OF LISTENING ACTIVITIES

1) Listening without making a response
2) Listening and making a minimal response, often non-verbal, to demonstrate understanding
3) Listening and making responses either speaking, reading or writing
The following activities can by used for types 1-3 listening activities. The number of parentheses relates to the type of activity. Most of the following activities are predominantly types 1 and 2 since activities that include listening/ speaking/reading / writing are 4-skill activities and are included in the General Activities Section.

INFORMAL TEACHER TALK

(1) Students need to hear the target language as much as possible. Use natural speech in your classroom whenever possible (greetings, classroom commands, when changing an activity -[for example, "O.K. That's enough. Let's go on to the next activity."]) Students will initially understand only minimal vocabulary but they will begin to hear your intonation patterns, pronunciation and common phrases used in everyday speech. Appropriate gestures will help students begin to understand meaning. Since non-verbal gestures differ from culture to culture begin using appropriate head, hand, and finger motions as soon as the course starts.
(2) Comprehension can be tested based on appropriate non-verbal responses.
(3) Students can be encouraged to ask for clarification (see language in Topic II.3) when they don't understand classroom directions.

REAL-LIFE EAVESDROPPING

(1) Students should be encouraged to pay attention to native speakers outside of class. Give specific real-life listening assignments related to a topic area. For example, have students listen to people greeting each other at parties; have students listen for exchanges in the market between buyer and seller.
(2,3) After listening to native speakers, students can report to the class parts of the conversation they understood; ask questions about phrases they didn't completely understand; make comments (probably in English) about gestures and non-verbal interactions in these conversations to figure out cultural aspects of the exchanges.

TEACHER MONOLOGUE

(1) Talk to the students about your own experiences in the different topic areas (for example, describe your family, talk about your house, describe your holiday plans). To help students in listening, first tell them what you are going to talk about, then give them a specific listening task. For example, if you are going to talk about your family, ask students to listen for the numbers of brothers/sisters you have; for the name of your youngest child. Although students won't understand everything, they'll enjoy the personal interaction and (2,3) may be able to ask basic questions for more information or clarification.

CONVERSATIONS WITH NATIVE SPEAKERS

(1, 2) Invite another native speaker into your classroom. Carry on a conversation together based on the topic area you're focusing on in class. Give students a specific listening assignment. For example: If students are working on housing language, have a conversation between a tenant who is interested in renting a house and a landlord and ask students to listen for the amount of the rent, when it is due, how many rooms are in the house, etc.

PICTURES

(1) Choose a picture relevant to a topic area (for example, people waiting for a bus at a bus station). Talk about the picture, describing the people, what they are doing, perhaps giving a conversation between characters in the picture. Point to appropriate parts of the picture as you speak.
(2) Ask students to point to appropriate parts of the picture as you talk or
(3) Ask and answer questions about the picture.

PICTURE STORIES

(1) Use a series of 6-10 pictures that tell a story. Narrate the story pointing to the appropriate picture.
(2) Ask questions about the story and have students respond by pointing or by (3) one-word answers.

TELL ME A STORY

(2) The teacher tells a story with a lot of action in it. Students must act out the story as the teacher tells it.

MAPS, CHARTS, DIAGRAMS, FAMILY TREES

(1) For example, describe routes from one place in the town to another; use a chart as the basis for describing food likes/dislikes; show a diagram of the floor plan of a store and describe the location of items; describe your family members by using a family tree. Have students listen to your descriptions.
(2) Have students demonstrate understanding by pointing to the appropriate parts of the maps, floor plans, etc.
(3) Have students respond to questions about the information the teacher gives in the maps, charts, etc.

INFORMATION GAP

(2) Give students a map/chart/etc. that has not been filled out. Dictate what the students should put in each box. Give students a map or grid (such as a bus schedule) with information missing. Dictate the information and have students fill in the blanks.

Flight No.	From	To	Arrives	Departs
Pan Am 65	New York	----	6:45	----
----	----	Prague	----	10:05

(3) Or have students with different information work together to solve a 'puzzle.' For Example: Back to Back Maps. Divide students into pairs. One student in each pair is A; the other is B. Give each student a map of the town. Student A's map has some of the buildings in the town named; other buildings have question marks on them. Student B has the buildings labeled that S A does not and question marks on the ones that are labeled on S A's map. S A must describe the location of each building so that S B can label the buildings on his map. Then S B describes for S A.

JIGSAW LISTENING

(3) Each student (or group of students) is given one part of the information needed to comprehend the whole. The students listen on tape or read their own parts and then share their information orally with the class in order to figure out the complete piece. Examples of Jigsaw Listening activities are: a mystery where each student has one clue; a recipe where each student has one of the instructions; a story where each student has one sentence.

CONSTRUCTION ENGINEER

(2) Give students approximately 10 rods (or blocks) of different colors. Give students directions about where to place the rods. For example: Put the green rod on the table. Put the white rod on top of the green rod. Put the red rod next to the green rod, etc. After you finish giving instructions, have students compare their constructions.This activity can also be done by placing objects or pictures of objects in different places according to your instructions.
(3) Have students direct each other to build a structure using the rods. Students can sit back to back. Student A gives instructions while building the structure himself. Student B follows the instructions, asking for clarification if necessary. After the structure is completed, the students compare the results.

DRAWING PICTURES

(2) Talk about a picture which the students cannot see and ask them to draw what you describe. Then compare the students' pictures with the one you described. This can be very simple: for example: "There's a table in the middle of the room. There's a cat under the table. There are four chairs around the table. There's a coffee pot on the table."

FIND THE MISTAKE

(2) Describe a person, place, or thing that all the students know and can see. This can be the room you are in, an object in the room or one of the students in the class. As you make your description, give false information. For example, if describing a blond-haired, blue-eyed girl named Betty from New York, you might say, "This is Susan. She's from Chicago. She has brown hair and brown eyes." Each time you give false information, the students must raise their hands. Pictures with lots of detail can also be used for this activity. As students look at the picture, give an oral description of the picture but make deliberate mistakes. Students circle or check the items that you describe incorrectly.
(3) Students can also correct the false information.

BINGO

(2) This game helps students identify vocabulary words from a topic area. The teacher calls out a relevant word and students place a marker in the appropriate box on the bingo card.

DICTATION

(2) Dictate information. Have students write what you say.

MULTIPLE CHOICE

(2) Give students a worksheet with several possible answers on it. Read one answer and have students circle the one you read. For example: in the Food Unit to practice reading labels, give a worksheet such as the following:
(Teacher reads "I need rice.")
a. beans b. peas c. rice (Students circle 'c'.)

SONGS

(1) Students enjoy native language songs both for pleasure and for cultural value. They don't need to understand every word in a song; they can enjoy the music with a minimal understanding of meaning. Play the song first. Then summarize the song in English, giving the meaning and any interesting background information. Students should listen to the song on successive days so they begin to learn the tune and pick out specific words.
(2,3) After listening a few times, they can begin to follow the written text and sing along.

TAPES

The teacher can make a tape of a conversation between native speakers, of a short narrative, of part of a radio broadcast, of a pronunciation drill and students can listen to the tape as many times as they need to in order to complete an assignment. This assignment can be a worksheet with questions to answer, such as jigsaw listening, or an oral drill to practice different sounds in the language. There are also commercially made tapes in the native language (of lectures, or stories read aloud, etc.); however, these are usually very difficult for beginning learners of the language.

MOVIES, VIDEOS

(1) Films relevant to the target culture are often interesting to students. Although beginners won't understand the majority of the narration, they will pick up meaning through the visual images and will benefit from listening to native speakers' intonation and pronunciation and will begin to pick up bits of the language.
(3) Ask questions about what students have seen and heard.

RADIO/TV

(1) Students may watch native language TV programs or listen to radio programs with their host families. Encourage students to listen to programs outside of class and use selected broadcasts in class. For example, a tape of a weather report from the radio can be a good opportunity to practice listening for vocabulary learned in a weather-related activity.
(2) Write weather vocabulary used in broadcast on board. Have students listen for words and point to them when they hear them used.
(3) Have students ask and answer questions about *short* taped broadcasts
(3) Make a tape with short "news" items (e.g."There's free beer in the bar on Saturday." "Movies will cost $10. next year." Have students react appropriately, using appropriate intonation.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

GRAMMAR ACTIVITIES

The following compilation of activities has been adapted from the *Peace Corps Language Training Curriculum.*

THE STAGES OF A GRAMMAR LESSONS

The same basic four steps of **motivation, information, practice** and **application** also apply to a grammar-based lesson .

1. MOTIVATION

Students need to encounter new grammatical patterns in contexts where there is a significant difference in meaning communicated by the new structures. From the very beginning of the lesson it is important for students to understand the link between a particualr grammatical form and the important distinction in meaning that the form conveys. This can be communciated through pictures, dialogs, a role play or even a teacher modelling the different forms and the meanings that they communicate.

2. PRESENTATION

Presentation is the stage at which students are introduced to the form, meaning and use of a new piece of language. At this stage students learn how to put the new syntax, words and sounds together. The grammar point can be introduced either inductively or deductively. In an inductive presentation, the teacher presents an activity in which a grammar point is used. Students figure out the grammatical rules after participating in the activity. In a deductive lesson, the teacher provides students with grammatical rules and explanations. A variety of the activities in the General Activities and Listening Activities Sections can be used to present grammar points.

3. PRACTICE

This stage can be divided into Controlled Practice and Free Practice. In the **Controlled Practice** stage, the learner begins to manipulate the structure, gaining control of the structure without the additional task of having to be creative with the language. At the **Free Practice** stage, the learner

engages in communicative activities to practice the structure being learned. These activities usually involve exchanges in which a speaker or listener cannot anticipate what is going to be said next. However, the student is still in the classroom, the activity is designed to practice a particular structure, and the activity is being monitored in some fashion by the teacher.

4. COMMUNICATIVE USE: 'Use' activities go beyond the language classroom into the community. The teacher may set up the activity, but the teacher is not usually around to monitor the language exchanges. Since 'Use' activities are usually interactions with native speakers, the language may be controlled somewhat by the questions of the learner; however, the native speakers are not usually controlling the grammatical structures that they use.

ACTIVITIES FOR PRESENTATION AND CONTROLLED PRACTICE

MODELLING/ REPETITION DRILLS The teacher gives a clear spoken model of the new language, using normal speed, stress and intonation. The teacher can give this model several times with students repeating after her, both in chorus and individually.

ISOLATION The teacher can isolate parts of a sentence by repeating the part with the grammatical structure she is teaching. Or the teacher can isolate it by writing the sentence on the board and pointing out or underlining the critical grammatical point.

DIALOGUES The teacher presents the grammatical point through the conversation of the two characters.

TIME LINES These diagram representations are useful for teaching and contrasting verb tenses.

FINGERS Fingers can be used to isolate parts of a sentence. Each finger can be a different word in the sentence. By pointing to the appropriate finger, the teacher show students where to find a key grammatical item.

CUISENAIRE RODS Teachers can give different grammatical properties to rods of different colors or lengths to make grammar learning more visual.

EXPLANATION The teacher gives grammatical explanations in the native language of the students.

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

Use listening based exercises to help students match meaning and form in context. Students can respond either physically or verbally. Students can listen to different examples and then figure out the grammatical rule for themselves or the teacher can point out the rule.

STORIES

The teacher develops a short story based around the particular topic area being studied. In this story, she repeatedly uses the grammatical point that the unit or competency area will focus on.

CLOZE PASSAGE

After a story is told, the teacher can write the story, omitting the grammar point to be studied. Students fill in the blanks with the appropriate grammatical item.

PICTURES

Picture files, photographs, and stick figure drawings can all be used as the stimulus for presenting and practicing grammatical points.

REALIA/ CLASSROOM OBJECTS

These can be used in matching structures with meaning.

CHARTS/ TABLES/ SCHEDULES/ GRAPHS

These are good for practice of grammatical structures.

SCRAMBLED SENTENCES

To practice word order, question/negative formation verb tense formation, etc. write each word of a sentence on a 3x5 card. Mix up the words and let students in pairs/small groups put the sentences in the correct order.

SONGS

Songs can often be chosen that repeat certain grammatical structures.

ACTIVITIES FOR FREE PRACTICE INCLUDING ACTIVITIES DONE IN PAIRS OR SMALL GROUPS

PICTURES

Students can be given a choice of pictures around which they develop their own story that uses a particular grammatical structure.

GAMES

Many of the games mentioned in the General Activities section can be played with a grammatical focus.

INFORMATION GAP

In this kind of activity, each student has different pieces of information necessary to make a whole. Students share information with each other to fill in grids, charts, schedules, or to tell a complete story or solve a problem.

PARALLEL WRITING ACTIVITIES

Students receive a sample of writing (a letter, for example) using a particular grammatical point. They develop their own piece of writing using the same structures.

SIMULATIONS AND ROLE PLAYS

Having the students take roles in the simulation of a real life situation allows them to practice structures in a communicative setting and one in which social factors may affect the use of a structure.

ACTIVITIES FOR COMMUNICATIVE USE

INTERVIEWS

Students can be assigned to interview host country nationals about a variety of topic areas. The assignment can be given so that students must use a particular grammatical structure to talk to the native speakers. For example: If the class is practicing the past tense in the Employment Topic, the assignment might be to ask 4 native speakers about the job they had before the one they have now.

FIELD TRIPS

Students can be sent into the community with assignments that require that they use certain structures in the target language. For example: If the class in the Shopping Unit is working on question words, students can be told to ask the price of 5 items in a food market or to ask the names of 3 food items.

TIPS FROM THE FIELD

SONGS AND GAMES

Songs, games and rhymes can be incorporated in your lesson plans, especially at the review stage and in the afternoon sessions, when students are sleepy. In fact, they can be used at any stage of the lesson. They teach language and culture together. Songs teaching culture usually involve a discussion about activities in the culture, e.g., who sings and what the occasion for the song is. There are usually language points to be discussed as well. One good example is the national anthem, and some teachers have Trainees sing it every morning.

Language Coordinators from Anglophone Africa Posts developed this selection of useful language songs and games for the classroom at a TOT Workshop in Zambia in 1995. Although the descriptions are in English, all are intended to be carried out in the target language.

BUZZ

Purpose: Practice with numbers

1. Participants stand in a circle and begin to count: first person says 1, the next says 2, the next says 3, etc. BUT
2. Participants should not say numbers that contain 7 (7, 17, 27, 37 etc.) or numbers that are multiples of 7 (14, 21, 28 etc.). Instead they have to say BUZZ!
3. If someone makes a mistake, they leave the circle and the next person starts again with 1. Try to reach 50 without mistakes.

ALPHABET

Purpose: Practice with vocabulary

Have a chart made depending on what competency, but it works well with the topics of food and introductions:

Sample

Name	Country	Town	Food	Drink

1. One student begins by telling the other "start." Then that student's partner has to start thinking through the alphabet in order. When the first student says, "stop," the one who has been thinking about the alphabet has to say what letter the other had reached.

2. Every member in the group then has to fill in the chart as quickly as possible with alphabetically appropriate choices. The first to finish tells the others to STOP.

Sample of completed chart

Name	Country	Town	Food	Drink
Belinda	**Britain**	**Baltimore**	**Bread**	**Beer**

It is not necessary for the elements to match except by first letter.

3. Each student should have a turn as the commander and as the alphabet thinker.

Follow-up: Have students talk about the information they have written: "Belinda is from Britain. She travelled to Baltimore. She likes beer and bread."

ALPHABET GAME

Purpose: Practice with vocabulary

1. Participants make a circle.
2. When one says a letter, the next person should say a word that begins with that letter.
3. That person calls out another letter and the next person has to come up with a word and so on.

Variation: Instead of calling out a new letter, the next person must say a word that begins with the final letter of the word just spoken.

MEMORY CONCENTRATION GAME

Purpose: Review grammar points, vocabulary

1. Make paired flash cards of words and phrases. It works well with positive and negative verbs; past, present, and future tenses; singulars and plurals; opposites.
2. Spread cards face down on the table and two students take turns selecting cards, trying to make pairs. When a pair is made, they are removed from the table. At the end, when all the cards have been removed, the student with the most pairs is the winner. Trainees should be practicing phrases and statements like "Which one?" "Sorry, you failed!" "It's your turn," and "I won!"

WHO AM I? GAME

Purpose: Practice questions

1.One Trainee leaves the class, and while he/she is out of the room, the others decide whom or what to call him/her. They write the word or name on a sticker.
2. The Trainee returns to the room and the sticker is placed on the trainee's back.
3. The Trainee then has to ask a series of yes/no questions to determine what is written on the sticker. "Am I a human being?" "Am I a woman?" etc.

SIMON SAYS

Purpose: Practice with verbs
1. The leader of the game says, "Simon says: sleep!" and other Trainees have to pantomime the verb.
2. A Trainee who doesn't do the correct action becomes the new leader.

TIME MACHINE GAME

Purpose: Practice with telling time
Materials needed: A big game board, dice
Number of participants: Usually not more than four
How to Play:
1. The first player throws a die to determine how many steps to move. Whe the player reaches a square with a clock, he or she must construct a sentence using the time indicated on the clock face. P[illegible]ers follow other directions as indicated on the squares.
2. Players alternate turns until someone reaches the finish square.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

GLOSSARY OF LINGUISTIC TERMINOLOGY

This useful glossary of common terms used in linguistics and language learning theory was compiled for the *Language Training Reference Manual*. The terminology is used throughout this Resource Kit.

ACHIEVEMENT TEST — An instrument or system for measuring how well a learner can perform the individual training objectives (competencies) taught in a certain number of lessons. This kind of test is less important in a competency-based curriculum than in a traditional, grammar-based one.

ACQUISITION — A term from the "natural approach" used to describe how children learn their native language and how this process can be applied to second language learning.

ANXIETY — A feeling of uneasiness. High anxiety levels will prevent language acquisition.

APPROACH — A schema for organizing a program of learning. An approach includes the expected stages of development in learners and may include a variety of compatible methods and procedures.

ASSESSMENT — An informal test OR a process of assessment (eg, portfolio, or a classroom based assessment like a checklist).

AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD — (ALM) A language teaching methodology based on structural linguistics and behavioral psychology.

AUDITORY MODE — The language skills of listening or speaking.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT — Procedures for carrying out training that do not appear on every lesson plan:

(1) a practice followed at all times, such as moving chairs in a circle for discussion.
(2) a set of predetermined responses to events that occur unpredictably, such as correcting errors.

CLOZE EXERCISE

A written text with words or phrases deleted; the learner must supply the missing word(s) to fit the context. A practice or assessment exercise that goes beyond knowledge of isolated vocabulary. Some cloze exercises are referred to as "fill in the blank" exercises.

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

The ability to communicate in a language in linguistically and culturally appropriate ways, like a native speaker; the goal of language training programs using the national approach. Similar to "functional proficiency" as described in Peace Corps oral interview.

COMPETENCE

A person's potential; what a person can do or say in a second language.

COMPETENCY

A performance-based process leading to the mastery of life skills needed to survive in a given society. In language training, we are concerned with competencies involving language.

COMPETENCY-BASED CURRICULUM

The full set of language-learning materials based on processes needed to live and work in a community (in this case, a second-language community). A competency-based curriculum is organized according to performable objectives.

COMPETENCY CHECKLIST

A list of competencies in the training program with spaces to check successful performance of each competency for each Trainee.

COMPETENCY OUTLINE

A form showing the breakdown of each competency into its language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking), grammar and vocabulary, cultural notes, and materials and activities. A way of seeing the contents of a competency at a glance.

COMPREHENSIBLE INPUT

Spoken or written language that is clear, relevant, and appropriate to the level of the second language acquirer or learner; when learners understand new material, the material was comprehensible input.

COMPREHENSIBLE OUTPUT

Language that a second-language learner produces in meaningful contexts. Comprehensible output encourages interaction with native speakers and

	helps the learner to analyze the second language (i.e., the native speaker understands what the learner is trying to say).
COMPREHENSION ACTIVITIES	Language-learning activities that call for the learner to understand meanings.
DEDUCTIVE LEARNING	A style of learning that begins with a generalization and proceeds to specific examples. Also applies to a teaching style.
DRILL	A repetitive exercise, directed by the instructor, designed to impress a grammatical or semantic pattern on a learner.
ECLECTICISM	The selection and use of varied methods and activities that suit the content of the lesson objectives and the preferences of the learners.
ERROR	A second-language learner's deviation from the target-language norm. Second-language errors are both natural and systematic.
EVALUATION	What one does with the test/assessment info to make decisions.
FIELD DEPENDENCE	A learning style characterized by learning perception of the whole before the parts and preferring interaction with the Trainer and other students. The degree of field dependence varies from person to person and from situation to situation.
FIELD INDEPENDENCE	A learning style characterized by ability to reorganize isolated parts of a whole and by a preference to work alone. The degree of field independence varies from person to person and from situation to situation.
FILTER	A component of the monitor model that acts as an inhibitor in language learning. When the filter is high, the learner becomes self-conscious or anxious and no longer absorbs the new language. A major goal of the natural approach is to lower the filter. Synonymous with affective filter.
FUNCTION	A use of (or purpose for using) language, such as asking for information or arguing. Competencies can be classified by function, and functions can be graded in difficulty.

HYPOTHESIS FORMATION

The process of making guesses about the meaning or content of a sample of language, oral or written. A sign of learner activity in language learning.

INDUCTIVE LEARNING

A learning style that focuses on parts, details, and examples first, and generalizations later. Also applies to a teaching style.

KINESTHETIC MODE

Learning by use of movement, such as total physical-response activities, scrambled sentences, or "lineups."

LANGUAGE SKILL

Listening, speaking, reading, or writing. A competency is broken down into language skills to discover its contents and then teach them.

LEARNING

Term used in the natural approach to contrast with acquisition, designating more conscious, less spontaneous study of language. The natural approach downplays learning activities in favor of acquisition activities.

LEARNING STRATEGY

A specific way of handling a learning task or problem. One person may use a variety of strategies.

LEARNING STYLE

A person's preference for a certain learning strategy or set of learning strategies. Learning styles vary from person to person.

LEFT-BRAIN DOMINANCE

A learning style controlled by the left hemisphere of the brain. Left-brain-dominant persons are thought to be more analytic, logical, and objective.

LESS CONTROLLED EXERCISES

Activities in which learners take the initiative, organizing language units in their own way or creating their own language units or both. These dominate in learner-centered classrooms and methods.

LESSON PLAN

A written plan of the entire contents of one day of class, the time needed to teach each part, and materials required.

LIFE SKILLS

Activities that a person must perform, using language and other means, to survive and function in society. Synonymous with "competency" as used in this manual.

LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

The ability to manipulate grammatical forms correctly. Linguistic competence is a part of communicative competence.

MODE

The sensory realm used by a person in a learning situation. (See visual mode, auditory mode, and kinesthetic mode.)

MONITOR MODEL

A model of the second-language acquisition process. The monitor model consists of three internal systems: the affective filter, the organizer, and the monitor; and two external elements, input and output.

NATURAL APPROACH

A structure and philosophy for language training programs developed by Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen that stresses acquisition of the second language in a way similar to first-language acquisition.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT

A process by which a trainer identifies the language skills needed by the learners and then orders those skills to form the basis for a competency-based curriculum. A needs assessment is a critical first step in the development of a language training program.

OPERATION

A procedure for doing a task, a natural sequence of actions.

PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

Speaking, writing, or physically performing a task from a language source; these all demonstrate comprehension of language by the learner.

PROFICIENCY TEST

A means of measuring a learner's general communicative competencies. A proficiency test does not concern itself with how or when the material has been taught.

REALIA

Real-life objects used in second-language teaching. Menus, tools, toys, train schedules, food, and application forms are some examples of realia. (See taxonomy.)

RECEPTIVE SKILLS

Listening and reading, since they do not result in any audible or visible production of language by the learner.

RIGHT-BRAIN DOMINANCE

A learning style controlled by the right hemisphere of the brain. Right-brain-dominant persons are thought to be more subjective and intuitive.

RISK TAKING A behavior characterized by a person's willingness to take chances. Moderate risk takers appear to be more successful second-language learners than either high or low risk takers.

ROLE PLAYING Having learners play themselves or others in dramatic situations in order to use language not found in classroom situations.

SEQUENCE The order of competencies and language skills in a curriculum. The sequence of lessons in a competency-based curriculum is the order in which Trainees are likely to need the material once it has been graded for grammatical difficulty.

SILENT WAY A language teaching methodology developed by the late Caleb Gattegno. It is characterized by a minimal use of language on the part of the Trainer, in the belief that learners can best internalize the target language when they are challenged and aided to generate it themselves.

SPIRAL To return to parts or all of a competency or other teaching point presented earlier in a training program, using more complex language the second or third time.

STRUCTURE In this manual, used synonymously with "grammar" or "grammatical structure."

SUGGESTOPEDIA A language teaching methodology developed in Bulgaria by Georgi Lozanov. Suggestopedia uses relaxation techniques to stimulate greater right brain involvement in the language acquisition process.

TARGET LANGUAGE The language being learned, a second or foreign language.

TAXONOMY Comprehensive list, in this manual, of teaching/learning organizational styles.

TEST A test (usually norm-referenced or high-stakes or formal) administered at one point in time; Example: LPI

TOLERANCE FOR AMBIGUITY A learning style characterized by an acceptance of situations that are not clearly defined. Tolerance for ambiguity may aid second-language acquisition.

TOPIC

An area of general importance to human life: housing, food, shopping, government services, etc. Competencies are classed by topic.

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE (TPR)

A language teaching methodology developed by James Asher. TPR incorporates a silent period and physical activity into the acquisition process.

VISUAL MODE

The language skills of reading or writing.

VOCABULARY IN CONTEXT

Techniques to teach vocabulary without lengthy word lists and dictionary use. Vocabulary can be taught using gestures, realia, paraphrase, redundancy, and other means.

USEFUL INFOR-MATION

GLOSSARY OF PEACE CORPS TERMS AND ACRONYMS

This useful glossary of common Peace Corps terms and acronyms first appeared in the *PATS Manual*.

AA — Assignment Area. Description of the training, qualifications and experience required for a specific Volunteer assignment. Also indicates a generic job title and code number for a Volunteer assignment.

APCD — Associate Peace Corps Director

BENEFICIARY — An individual who receives the immediate or ultimate benefits of a project. In a teacher training project, for example, the teachers being trained are immediate beneficiaries, and the students who will be taught by those teachers are the ultimate beneficiaries.

CD — Country Director

CDU — Country Desk Unit. The administrative unit serving a group of Peace Corps posts, and located at Peace Corps Headquarters in Washington.

COLLABORATING AGENCY — A national or international institution (public, private, bilateral, or multilateral) involved in a project with Peace Corps and a sponsoring host country agency, and providing technical or material resources.

CONTRACTOR TRAINING EVALUATION REPORT — A report written by the COTR, assessing the contractor's work on a training event, such as a PST.

COUNTERPART — An individual doing the same job as the PCV, or one with the same functions and characteristics. Ideally, this is the person with whom a PCV is partnered, with the PCV benefiting from local knowledge, expertise, experiences and motivation, and the counterpart benefiting in turn from updated technical knowledge, expertise experience and motivation, for subsequent

transfer to the project's target beneficiaries. The Volunteer and counterpart are "employed" and supervised by the same agency or organization.
In some projects a beneficiary who shows particular aptitude in adapting to changes being introduced, and who is trained over the course of the project to serve as a trainer/advisor for his or her peers, may also function as a counterpart. Using beneficiaries in this capacity is especially important in settings where trained host country personnel do not exist , or are not available in sufficient numbers to serve all beneficiaries. Farmer leaders are examples of beneficiaries who can function as counterparts.

COSC — Close of Service Conference. A planned event which marks the end of a Volunteer's assignment. Activities are planned to assist Volunteers in making the transition back to the United States and to receive Volunteer feedback on their assignments.

COTE — Calendar of Training Events. A session-by-session, hour-by-hour, schedule of a training event.

COTR — Contracting Officer's Technical Representative. Provides technical support and oversight to the contractor.

COUNTRY AGREEMENT — A legally binding document developed by Peace Corps and the host country governmental body responsible for overseeing Peace Corps activities. This document specifies Peace Corps program goals and activities.

CO-WORKERS — Individuals who work in the same unit, department or organization/agency as the PCV, or in another organization/agency and who work in some capacity with the same beneficiaries. Although co-workers have different functions than those of PCVs and their counterparts, activities provided to the same beneficiaries may need to be coordinated. A Volunteer working in agricultural extension may, for example, have a nutritionist as a co-worker.

DOW — Description of Work. Document that defines the goals of training and provides the following: general guidelines for trainer responsibilities, expected Trainee competencies, number of instruction hours, course content, host country officials to be used as resources for training, and country-specific requirements particular to the training.

EVALUATION — A special data collection and analysis, sometimes carried out by an objective outsider, to determine project or program effectiveness, to review management issues, or to reorient or revitalize an existing project.

FILL RATE — Degree to which Trainees are provided for a specific assignment, as compared to the number requested.

GOAL

A broad statement of *what is to be achieved by the end of the project*. It is expressed in terms of production improvements and/or improvements in the capability or conditions of beneficiaries. A goal is directly linked to the project purpose. A project may have more than one goal.

HCA

Host Country Agency. Generally used to refer to the primary host country entity with which Peace Corps collaborates on a project.

HCN

Host Country National. A citizen of the host country who works on a Peace Corps project. Also refers to citizens of the host country employed by Peace Corps. (The latter are also referred to as FSNs if they are career Peace Corps employees.)

HOST COUNTRY

A country that has invited Peace Corps to work within its borders, and to establish human development projects for the benefit of its citizens.

ICE

Section of the General Services Division within OTAPS called Information Collection and Exchange. ICE is responsible for gathering and distributing technical materials such as books and manuals, and for assisting in the development of in-country resource centers.

IPBS

Integrated Planning and Budget System. Annual document that contains a Peace Corps post's program strategies and goals, including proposed new projects, a description of the year's programming and training events, and a budget for the country program.

IST

In-Service Training. Training activities that take place in the PCV's assigned country during the period of service, and meet a Volunteer's ongoing training needs: technical, linguistic, cross-cultural and health/ personal safety.

MILESTONES

Short term indicators of progress toward meeting project objectives. They help explain *what* is to be accomplished and *when*. Milestones must directly contribute to accomplishing the relevant objective. Milestones are linked to the tasks of the Volunteers.

MONITORING

Process of gathering and analyzing information as part of a regular reporting system (monthly or quarterly Volunteer reports, *for example*).

MOU

Memorandum of Understanding
1) When referring to training, the MOU is a document written by Peace Corps staff and the contractor's Training Manager to clarify the agreement reached between the two parties. The agreement describes how the training program will be implemented and ensures that the contractor agrees to provide the training as

	described. The MOU spells out any changes the contractor and Peace Corps staff have made to the training program. 2) When referring to programming, an MOU is a document that defines the terms of agreement between Peace Corps and a Host Country Agency regarding a collaborative project. The MOU, also called "Project Agreement", contains or refers to the project plan and defines the responsibilities of the PCVs, Peace Corps staff and the HCA.
MSC	Mid-Service Conference. Event scheduled for Volunteers who are approximately halfway through their assignments. The conference provides training and development opportunities and obtains feedback from Volunteers.
PROJECT ASSIGNMENT	Assignment that does not fit into a project for which a project plan yet exists (or will exist in the near future). Non-project assignments must still have a job description with specific starting and ending dates.
OBJECTIVES	The final results which together achieve a project goal or goals. They should be expressed in terms that are quantifiable, qualitative, and time-specific, and directly linked to project goals. A goal usually contains more than one objective.
OTAPS	Office of Training and Program Support. Office at Peace Corps Headquarters that provides technical assistance to the regional staff and to all Peace Corps posts. OTAPS is composed of three divisions: Program Support, Training and General Support.
OUTCOMES	The changes (impact) for the ultimate beneficiaries that are expected as a result of a product(s) or service(s) in a project. Purpose and goal statements reflect outcomes, using terms like increase, decrease, or improve.
OUTPUTS	The products or services that have been produced in a project, and their effects on the population targeted for intervention (beneficiaries). Outputs are measured at the objective and milestone level, with action-oriented verbs.
PCT	Peace Corps Trainee (not yet sworn in as a Volunteer)
PCV	Peace Corps Volunteer
PC/W	Peace Corps Washington. Refers to Peace Corps headquarters and the offices/services therein.
PDO	Pre-Departure Orientation. A two- or three-day program held in the U.S., providing departing Trainees an overview of their overseas assignments.

PRELIMINARY PROJECT PLAN Brief document that summarizes the initial project planning steps and permits verification of the feasibility of a potential project.

PROBLEM An existing social or economic need that in good probability can be addressed by applying host country and Peace Corps resources.

PROBLEM STATEMENT A short statement defining an undesirable situation that needs to be changed, and that Peace Corps can realistically address. It is preceded by a definition of the problem, its scope, consequences, and causes. A problem statement is the basis for defining the project purpose (the full or partial reversal of the problem).

PROGRAM Refers to all Volunteer activities within one country. *Example:* The entire Peace Corps operation in Costa Rica, including all activities in which Volunteers are involved, is referred to as the Peace Corps Program in Costa Rica.

PROGRAMMING The process by which Peace Corps and host country agencies work together to design, implement, and evaluate Volunteer-based projects.

PROJECT Refers to all Volunteer activities related to a common purpose, goal(s) and set of objectives. *Example:* Under the health sector in Costa Rica, there are two projects – one Sanitation Project and one Nutrition Project – each with a separate set of goals and objectives.

PROJECT AGREEMENT Document which. although not legally binding, serves as a contract between Peace Corps and the host country agency, clearly defining th goals, objectives and details of the project, as well as the responsibilities of each party. Also known as MOU, or Memorandum of Understanding, in some countries.

PROJECT CRITERIA Official Peace Corps policy statement that defines the parameters each project must strive to meet. The 13 project criteria provide guidelines for implementing Peace Corps philosophy, addressing host country needs, and utilizing resources.

PROJECT PLAN The written agreement between Peace Corps and a host country agency that serves as a working document, defining why and how they will proceed with a project strategy and Volunteer assignments. It is compatible with Peace Corps programming criteria and host country needs. The project plan often is incorporated into a project agreement (or MOU) that is jointly signed.

PROJECT PARTICIPANTS All those involved, in any way, in the design, organization, implementation, evaluation and documentation of a project are considered to be participants.

PROJECT PURPOSE The overall reason or rationale for the project, answering the question – *Why should this project exist?* It represents a full or partial reversal of the problem statement. The project purpose should include a reference to how the beneficiaries' condition will change for the better.

PSC Personal Services Contract. Legally-binding agreement between Peace Corps and an individual for the individual to provide a remunerated service such as training to the Peace Corps.

PSR Project Status Report. Annual document , prepared by a Peace Corps post, reporting on progress achieved on each project. Using these documents, PC/W and a Peace Corps post review the status of all projects in that country, and make adjustments as necessary.

PST Pre-Service Training. Training events that take place in the country of assignment before trainees are sworn in as Volunteers. Training activities cover knowledge, skills, and attitudes in technical, language, cross-cultural and personal health/safety areas.

PTO Programming and Training Officer. Associate Peace Corps Director responsible for oversight of programming and training activities.

PTO Private Voluntary Organization. A non-governmental agency, funded by public or private sources, that engages in human development projects or assists charitable causes. Sometimes referred to as NGO, or non-governmental organization

QUALITATIVE DATA Information that tells about the quality and capacity of the project or program and includes opinions, feelings, observable changes in people.

QUANTITATIVE DATA Information that may be manipulated statistically. Quantitative data includes tabulations of frequency, percentages, and averages.

QTRS Quarterly Trainee Request Summary. Document submitted four times a year to Peace Corps/Washington (Office of Volunteer Recruitment and Selection) by each Peace Corps post to project the numbers and types of Volunteers needed for the country projects.

SECTOR Refers to all Volunteer activities within one content area. Peace Corps activities are classified according to the following

sectors: agriculture, education, environment, health, small business development and youth development.

SITE SURVEY (OR ASSESSMENT) The assessment of each potential Volunteer site prior to initial or subsequent placement of Volunteers. The site survey assesses community conditions, project-related conditions, and Volunteer working and living conditions.

SKILL CLUSTER A range of qualifications within an Assignment Area, some or all of which are considered acceptable for a specific assignment.

SOW Statement of Work. Part of the contractual document outlining the responsibilities of a person performing a Personal Services Contract (PSC) or an organization performing under a non-Personal Services Contract. The SOW is included in the Request for Proposals (RFP) provided to contractors who wish to bid for a training program or other Peace Corps contract.

SST Stateside Training. A training event for technical skill-development provided in the United States when PST is not available in-country, for financial or technical reasons. SST is provided to trainees before departure for their assigned countries. Length of training varies depending upon project needs and Trainees' entry skills.

SUPERVISOR The person within the Host Country Agency, whether governmental or non-governmental, who is in charge of a particular department, unit or other group to which a PCV is assigned, and by whom the PCV's work is supervised. In some cases, the supervisor can also have a counterpart relationship with the Volunteer.

TASK ANALYSIS A document defining the responsibilities of a specific Volunteer assignment by breaking each major project milestone into the activities the Volunteer must perform.

TCT Third Country Training. PST activity that takes place in a country other than the United States or the country of Volunteer service, scheduled when the appropriate training is not available stateside or in-country. TCT typically includes Trainees from more than one country.

TOT Training of Trainers. A program to prepare training staff for their duties. The TOT is attended by the Training Manager, Coordinators, Language Instructors and other instructors, and support staff as determined by the Training Manager.

TOT REPORT A written report which compiles the results of the TOT workshop. The report includes a general assessment of the training group as well as assessments of individual training staff.

TRAINING DESIGN	Detailed (hour-by-hour, session-by-session) outline of the training philosophy; goals; session objectives; content, methodology, and activities to meet objectives; list of resources; and evaluation methods. The training design is intended for use by trainers.
TRAINING SYLLABUS	A detailed outline of a training event , meant to be shared with Trainees, host country representatives, and interested field staff. A training syllabus is developed for each training event and includes the schedule, learning objectives, activities, and methodology for each session.
VAD	Volunteer Assignment Description. The document outlining the responsibilities, activities, work objectives, cross-cultural expectations, living conditions, entry skills, and other competencies required for a given Peace Corps Volunteer assignment. It is used by placement officers to select and place future Volunteers, and to inform those invited to become PCVs about the assignment they are being offered.
VOLUNTEER ASSIGNMENT	A set of responsibilities to be undertaken by one or more PCVs working on a project. *Example:* The Nutrition Project in Costa Rica has two Volunteer assignments: 1) an assignment which includes activities requiring the skills of a person with a degree in health and/or nutrition, and 2) an assignment which includes activities requiring the skills of a person who has a background and an expressed interest in community extension work in health and nutrition.
VOLUNTEER GENERATIONS	Successive Volunteer groups serving over the length of a project. Generations may be "evolving", with each group building on the work of the preceding one, or "repeating" with later groups undertaking the same tasks as earlier generations, but at new sites.
VRS	Office of Volunteer Recruitment and Selection located at Peace Corps/Washington.

HOW TO DO IT

PEACE CORPS RESOURCES FOR LANGUAGE TRAINING PROGRAMS

COMMERCIAL MATERIALS

Nearly all of these materials have been made available to posts through Information Collection and Exchange (ICE) since 1991. Language Coordinators will find many of these titles in their in-country Resource Center. Most are still available from ICE, so their ICE numbers are indicated in parentheses().

• E. Thomas Brewster and Elizabeth S. Brewster, *Language Acquisition Made Practical (LAMP): Field Methods for Language Learners*, Lingua House, 1976.
An early self-directed learning manual. It is overly prescriptive and it relies too much on listen-and-repeat practice activities, but this book also contains useful information about grammar, pronunciation and ideas for lesson topics with tutors.

• H. Douglas Brown, *Breaking the Language Barrier: Creating Your Own Pathway to Success*, Intercultural Press, Yarmouth, MA, 1991, (TR 053)
Information about language learning written in a clear, friendly style. Especially appropriate for trainees or PCVs.

• H. D. Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, (third Edition)*, Prentice Hall, 1994 (TR 023)
A comprehensive introduction to second language acquisition and instruction. Widely used in US language teacher training courses in universities.

• Colin Campbell and Hanna Kryszewska, *Learner-Based Teaching*, (ED169)
Ways that English teachers can use students' experiences as the basis for lessons.

• JoAnn Crandall, *Teaching ESL Through Content Area Instruction*, Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington DC, 1995.
A short book describing how language lessons can focus on other academic subjects.

• Zoltan Dornyei, Sarah Thurrell, *Conversation and Dialogues in Action*, Prentice Hall, 1992 (TR090)
Suggestions for constructing better, more realistic dialogs and creative ways to teach them.

• James G. Henderson, *Reflective Teaching: Becoming an Inquiring Educator*, Macmillan: NY, 1992 (ED174)
Approaches to professional development that go beyond teaching techniques and activities.

• Arthur Hughes, *Testing for Language Teachers* (ED 084)
Information on "traditional" classroom testing, explanations of concepts, such as validity and reliability.

• Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters, *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning-Centered Approach*, Cambridge University Press: NY 1986 (ED 139)
The most widely used resource regarding special purposes, language instruction. A bit theoretical.

• Friederike Klippel, *Keep Talking: Communicative Fluency Activities for Language Teaching*, Cambridge University Press, 1984 (ED 129)
Speaking activities for English as a Second Language classes, mostly at an intermediate level or higher.

• MacCarthey, Bernice, *The 4MAT System: Teaching to Learning Styles with Right/Left Mode Techniques*, EXCEL Inc., 1987, Barrington, Il., (ED187)
This volume explains the basic ideas behind 4MAT: the Kolb learning styles as well as information about left-brain and right-brain processing. The writing style is simple and straightforward.

• Anna Maria Malke and Ruth Montalvan, *Bright Ideas* (ED 147)
A 64-page collection of English teaching ideas.

• Terry Marshall, *The Whole World Guide to Language Learning* , Intercultural Press, Yarmouth, MA, 1989 (TR 046)
A short self-directed learning manual with an approach similar to the Brewsters' LAMP book.

• Patrick Moran, *Lexicarry: An Illustrated Vocabulary Builder for Second Languages*, Pro Lingua Associates: Brattleboro, VT. 1990 (TR 061)
A collection of generic line drawings that illustrate common vocabulary. A useful source of pictures to be used in the classroom.

• Alice Omaggio-Hadley, *Teaching Language in Context, (Second Edition)*, Heinle and Heinle, Boston, Ma. 1993. (TR078)
A standard comprehensive reference book about language teaching. A bit academic.

• Rebecca Oxford, *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*, (TR 060)
An academic overview of language learning strategies.

• Peter Renner, *The Art of Teaching Adults: How to Become an Exceptional Instructor and Facilitator*, PFR Training Associates, 1994 (ED181)
A guide for facilitating workshops and sessions, full of practical ideas, clearly described.
• Pauline Robinson, *ESP Today: A Practioner's Guide*, Prentice Hall, NY, 1991.
A reference book about language instruction for special purposes--brief but rather academic.
• Joan Rubin and Irene Thompson, *How to Be a More Successful Language Learner, (Second edition)*, Heinle & Heinle, Boston, 1994. (TR089)
A very readable, practical book for language learners, encouraging independent learning. Good chapters about communication and language learning to share with teachers in a TOT.
• Susan Sheerin, *Self-Access*, Oxford University Press:NY, 1989 (ED 168)
A discussion of considerations in setting up and managing a self-access English language learning materials center.
• Christopher Sion, *Recipes for Tired Teachers: Well-Seasoned Activities for ESOL Classroom*, Addison-Wesley, Menlo Park CA, 1989 (ED132)
Language teaching activities to adapt.

ICE PUBLICATIONS

• *Language Learning Strategies for Peace Corps Volunteers* (R 069) (Mary Schleppegrell and R. Oxford)
A basic introduction to learning strategies that each trainee should receive.
• *Handbook for Classroom Testing in Peace Corps Language Programs* (T 068)
Now somewhat outdated, a discussion of testing techniques to use in PST.
• *Peace Corps Language Training Curriculum* (T0074)
A generic competency-based language curriculum for "survival." (Included on the CD ROM of this Resource Kit)
• *ESP: Teaching English for Specific Purposes* (M 031)
A clear, practical introduction to this field.
• *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (M 041)
A general overview of language teaching theory and methods, written for the non-specialist,
• *Nonformal Education Manual* (M 042)
Teaching ideas and session plans that are non-traditional and not necessarily classroom-based.
• *Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Large, Multi-level Classes*, (M 046)
Helpful resource for information on 4MAT lesson planning.
• *Culture Matters: Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Workbook*, (T0087)
Essential resource for integrating cross-cultural and language instruction.

• *PACA: Participatory Analysis for Community Action.* (M0053)
This manual for community development includes several activities, particularly in the "Training" section, with implications for language use

VIDEOS

• *Adult Language Learning. A four-part video series.*
Titles: *How Adults Learn, Activating Learning, Making it Relevant, Classroom Procedures.*
These short videos are accompanied by three booklets "Participant Course book," "Activities Book," and "Trainer's Manual." All are available in English and French. "Activities Book" is available in Spanish. Available from the Training Division.
• Diane Larsen-Freeman, *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching.* (ED 144)
There are four USIS-produced videos and a Peace Corps-developed trainers guide which accompany this volume. All are available from ICE.